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И. С. КРИШТОП

BRITISH AND AMERICAN STUDIES
СТРАНОВЕДЕНИЕ ВЕЛИКОБРITАНИИ И США

Практическое пособие
для студентов языковых специальностей
учреждений высшего образования

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Барановичи
РИО БарГУ
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Криштоп, И. С.


Представлены текстовые материалы о географии, истории, экономике и культуре Великобритании и США. Каждый раздел сопровождается серией заданий, направленных на систематизацию страноведческой информации, развитие умений критически её оценивать, используя элементы научно-исследовательской деятельности, осуществлять анализ культурно-исторических, социально-политических и экономических реалий и представлять результаты в виде презентации проектов.

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Communication in English does not consist of simply speaking English. In carrying out true communication, it is indispensable to have a deep understanding of the society where the language has been developed.

This book is aimed to provide the students with the most updated information and analysis of the different aspects of life in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and The United States of America. Structurally the book includes the following parts: Contents, Preface, Part I, Part II, Supplements, and References. Part I and Part II are further subdivided into topics.

Part I contains the basic information about the geographical position, climate, history and the structure of the political, social, economic and cultural life of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland.

Part II comprehensively covers the most important aspects of American life presented in a logical order. The content of the material includes the outline of the geography, history, political and social life of the USA. Due attention is paid to the description of the system of education and America’s global role in the world.

Each topic included into Part I and Part II has the series of questions and assignments to check the students’ comprehension of the material (key concepts, notions, facts, etc.) and its consolidation. Some tasks may serve as the basis for discussion during seminars. Exercises of creative character (Write an essay … or Prepare the projects …) are purposed to enhance students’ interest for a more profound insight into the problem posed. One should be critical of different aspects of life in the UK and the USA.

The supplements provide extra information to deepen the knowledge. Consequently, they may be of use while preparing for classes or working independently.

The limited scope of the book allows only for the inclusion of material sufficient to lay the foundation for forming general ideas about life in the UK and the USA. The book may be of interest and help to the students and in-service teachers.
PART I
BRITISH STUDIES

TOPIC 1.1 ONE OF THE GREATEST COUNTRIES OF THE WORLD

1.1.1 General description: what comes to mind first?

United Kingdom is a constitutional monarchy in northwestern Europe, officially the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. Great Britain is the largest island in the cluster of islands, or archipelago, known as the British Isles. England is the largest and most populous division of the island of Great Britain, making up the south and east. Wales is on the west and Scotland is to the north. Northern Ireland is located in the northeast corner of Ireland, the second largest island in the British Isles. The capital of the United Kingdom is the city of London, situated near the southeastern tip of England.

People often confuse the names for this country, and frequently make mistakes in using them. United Kingdom, UK, and Britain are all proper terms for the entire nation, although the term Britain is also often used when talking about the island of Great Britain. The use of the term Great Britain to refer to the entire nation is now outdated; the term Great Britain, properly used, refers only to the island of Great Britain, which does not include Northern Ireland. The term England should never be used to describe Britain, because England is only one part of the island. It is always correct to call people from England, Scotland, or Wales British, although people from England may also properly be called English, people from Scotland Scottish, and people from Wales Welsh.

The United Kingdom is a small nation in physical size — 244,110 sq. km (94,251 sq. ml). It is located as far north in latitude as Labrador in North America, but, like the rest of northern Europe, it is warmed by the Gulf Stream flowing out of the North Atlantic Ocean. These conditions make Britain lush and green, with rolling plains in the south and east and
rough hills and mountains to the west and north. Despite its relatively small size, Britain is highly populated, with an estimated population density of 250 persons per sq. km (646 per sq. ml) in 2004.

It is highly developed economically, preeminent in the arts and sciences, sophisticated in technology, and highly prosperous and peaceful. In general, British subjects belong to one of the more affluent states of Europe and enjoy a high standard of living compared to the rest of the world. Some class distinctions have become blurred in Britain. Today only a small number of people are considered upper class. Because the British economy has created many semiprofessional and technical jobs, it is no longer easy to tell which jobs are middle class and which are working class. Moreover, growing national affluence has brought greater social mobility between the working class and the middle class.

1.1.2 Contributions to human civilization

In the early 20th century, a quarter of the world’s people and a quarter of the world’s land surface were controlled in some way by Britain. In fact, it was British travelers and explorers who contributed a lot to our knowledge of the world. One can remember the navigator and explorer Sir Francis Drake. His famous contemporary was Sir Walter Raleigh, also a traveler. Two hundred years later Captain James Cook, British explorer and navigator, made his three voyages of exploration in the South Pacific Ocean and the coastal waters of North America. He is best known as the discoverer of the Hawaiian Islands and Australia. Other travelers of note include David Livingstone, Ernest Henry Shackleton and Robert Falcon Scott who reached the South Pole in 1912.

Britain was a pioneer in economic matters. The first industrial revolution occurred in Britain and led to the development of the world’s first society dominated by a middle class. Rapid economic development and worldwide trade made Britain the richest nation in the world during the reign of Queen Victoria. The technology of the Industrial Revolution was developed by practical craftsmen who pioneered innovations on the earliest machines. A key invention was a practical steam engine, which Scottish inventor James Watt was pivotal in developing in the late
18th century. Engineer George Stephenson built the first railway, steamboats and tunnels were built by Isambard Brunel. All of these early inventions were first used in the textile industry.

Britain has been a world leader in science. Modern science owes much Francis Bacon, whose theories laid the foundation of the scientific method. Sir Isaac Newton, a scientific genius in physics and mathematics. At the end of the 19th century the British physician Edward Jenner discovered the vaccine that is used against smallpox and laid the groundwork for the science of immunology. During the Victorian age, Michael Faraday’s and James Maxwell’s work led to the practical application of the electric power. Biologist Charles Darwin developed the theory of evolution through natural selection, which radically influenced modern science and thought. Surgeon Joseph Lister introduced antiseptic surgery.

Over the last century, more than 70 British citizens have been awarded the Nobel Prize in science, second only to the United States. One of them is Alexander Fleming who discovered penicillin, the first of the antibiotic medicines. In physics, several British scientists carried on atomic research, most notably Ernest Rutherford. British technology pioneered in the development of radar and jet engines. British scientists contributed to the 1953 discovery of the molecular structure of deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) as well as subsequent breakthroughs in medicine and genetics, including DNA fingerprinting, gene therapy, and in vitro fertilization. In the late 1990s a team of researchers led by Ian Wilmut performed the first successful cloning of an animal.

1.1.3 Contributions to world culture

Britain has been important in the arts throughout modern times. Plays, novels, stories and, most recently, screenplays from Britain have been admired throughout the world. British contributions to literature are remarkable in their richness, variety, and consistency. The names of William Shakespeare and Charles Dickens are universally known. At the end of the 20th century, the phenomenal success of the Harry Potter books written by Joanne Rowling made her one of the richest women in
the world. Britain can also claim several artists and composers of note, including composer Sir Edward Elgar, as well as such popular artists as Adrew Lloyd Weber and John Lennon.

When we speak about British architecture it needs to be mentioned that some of the oldest examples of British architecture include a few Anglo-Saxon buildings. After the Norman Conquest in 1066, they built the White Tower, which is part of the Tower of London, and the castle, cathedral, and monastery complex at Durham. Sir Christopher Wren, Britain’s greatest architect helped in the rebuilding of the city, after the Great Fire of London in 1666. Wren designed 52 new churches in London. Many of his churches still stand. The grandest of them is Saint Paul’s Cathedral in London. In the 18th century few English buildings followed the ornate patterns of the baroque and rococo architectures used in Europe.

During the Victorian era Britain became the world’s first urban, industrialized society, and a vast middle class developed. Its way of life became a trademark of Britain. The British say “My home is my castle” and they are all in it. British houses are made with concrete blocks or concrete-like building materials because the dampness of the climate causes wood to rot. Central heating is now widespread; previously, individual fires or heating devices were used. The British tend to socialize by joining clubs and hobby groups. The local public house, or pub, serves alcoholic beverages and is an important gathering place, particularly for the working class. Politeness is a hallmark of British society.

Sports are important, and an estimated 29 million people participate in a variety of sports, including football (soccer), rugby, cricket, tennis, polo, horse racing, field hockey, and croquet. Many more are spectators of professional sports. Cricket is considered the national game of England, cricket is also popular in countries that were formerly British colonies. Fishing is popular, but the few people who take up hunting come under considerable criticism for doing so. Reading, music, culture, and the arts are pursued zealously by countless millions. The authoritative and soothing tones of BBC radio and television broadcasts and news reporting inform British people and others worldwide. The development of the powerful cultural medium — the modern computer — owes much to the work of the 19th century scientist Charles Babbage. Some twenty years ago, British Professor Tim Berners-Lee developed the World Wide Web.
1.1.4 English, one of the world languages

With each passing year, English comes closer to being a world language for all educated people, as Latin once was. English Language, chief medium of communication of people in the United Kingdom, the United States, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, and numerous other countries. It is the official language of many nations in the Commonwealth of Nations and is widely understood and used in all of them. It is spoken in more parts of the world than any other language and by more people than any other tongue except Chinese.

In Great Britain at present the speech of educated persons is known as Received Standard English. An important development of English outside Great Britain occurred with the colonization of North America. American English may be considered to include the English spoken in Canada, although the Canadian variety retains some features of British pronunciation, spelling, and vocabulary. The most distinguishing differences between American English and British English are in pronunciation and vocabulary.

English also enters into a number of simplified languages that arose among non-English-speaking peoples. Pidgin English spoken in the Melanesian islands, New Guinea, Australia, the Philippines, and Hawaii and on the Asian shores of the Pacific Ocean, developed as a means of communication between Chinese and English traders. Estuary English is a name given to the formulation(s) of English widely spoken among the young. Many consider it to be a working-class accent, though it is by no means limited to the working class. Estuary English shares many features with Cockney pronunciation.

Questions and Assignments

1. Prove that …
   a) British people contributed a lot to our knowledge of the world;
   b) Britain was a pioneer in economic matters;
   c) Britain has been a world leader in science;
   d) Britain has been important in the arts throughout modern times.

2. What languages (dialects) are spoken in Britain?
3. English has been enriched by borrowing from a number of languages. What do you know about origin of different English words? Do this little matching task:

- a) mazurka 1) Welsh
- b) robot 2) Gaelic/Irish
- c) goulash 3) Finnish
- d) shamrock 4) Russian
- e) coffee 5) Polish
- f) caravan 6) Czech
- g) flamingo 7) Hungarian
- h) penguin 8) Portuguese
- i) tea 9) Turkish
- j) sputnik 10) Persian
- k) samurai 11) Chinese
- l) sauna 12) Japanese

4. Prepare the projects (power point presentations) on the following topics:
   - The population of the UK;
   - The four nations: England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland;
   - National symbols of the UK and its parts;
   - Holidays, customs and special occasions of the UK.

5. Write an essay “The UK: the country and its people”.

**TOPIC 1.2 BRITAIN’S GEOGRAPHY AND CLIMATE**

**1.2.1 The geographical position**

The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland is situated on the British Isles — a large group of islands lying off the north-western coast of Europe and separated from the continent by the English Channel and the Strait of Dover in the south and the North Sea.
in the east. The British Isles consist of two large islands — Great Britain and Ireland — separated by the Irish Sea, and a lot of small islands, the main of which are the Isle of Wight in the English Channel, Anglesea and the Isle of Man in the Irish Sea, the Hebrides — a group of islands off the north-western coast of Scotland, and two groups of islands lying to the north of Scotland: the Orkney Islands and the Shetland Islands.

Historically the territory of the United Kingdom is divided into four parts: England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. The total area of the United Kingdom is 244 thousand sq. km. The name Britain is sometimes used to refer to the United Kingdom as a whole. The capital is London, which is among the world’s leading commercial, financial, and cultural centers. Other major cities include Birmingham, Liverpool, and Manchester in England, Belfast and Londonderry in Northern Ireland, Edinburgh and Glasgow in Scotland, and Swansea and Cardiff in Wales.

The coastline of Great Britain is greatly indented, especially in the west and north-west where the mountains come close to the coast. The coasts of Scotland, as well as the coasts of the Hebrides, the Orkney Islands and the Shetland Islands, are cut by numerous fiords. In the south and east the land gradually slopes down towards the sea, and the coasts are sandy and gentle.

1.2.2 Britain’s relief

Of the four countries which make up the United Kingdom, England is the largest. It occupies an area of 131,8 thousand sq. km. England borders on Scotland in the north. In the east it is washed by the North Sea. In the south it is separated from the continent by the English Channel. In the west it borders on Wales and is washed by the Bristol Channel and by the Irish Sea. The highest part of England is in the west. The rivers flowing to the east and emptying into the North Sea form deep estuaries are well protected from the sea. The greatest port of the country London is conveniently situated in the Thames estuary.

As concerns the relief, England can be divided into: Northern England mostly taken up by the low Pennine Mountains, the Central Plain, lowland Southeast England, and hilly South-west England. The Pennine Chain is sometimes called the backbone of England. Many of England’s major industrial areas lie on the flanks of the Pennine Chain, where there
are many coalfields. To the west are the Cumbrian Mountains, a mountainous dome of ancient rocks deeply eroded by glaciers. This region contains the Lake District, famous for its lakes and scenic beauty.

Scotland is the most northern of the countries that constitute the United Kingdom. It occupies an area of 78,8 thousand sq. km. Scotland is washed by the Atlantic Ocean in the north and west and by the North Sea in the east.

The coastline of Scotland is greatly indented. In many places deep fiords penetrate very far inland. Geographically the territory of Scotland can be divided into three regions: the Northern Highlands, the Central Lowlands and the Southern Uplands. The Highlands are the highest mountains in the British Isles. Their average height does not exceed 457 m above sea level, though some peaks are much higher, rising over a thousand metres. Ben Nevis, the highest peak in the British Isles, reaches the height of 1343 m. The Lowlands are the cradle of the Scottish nation. They are densely populated.

Wales is a peninsula washed by the sea on three sides: the Bristol Channel in the south, the St. George’s Channel in the west, and the Irish Sea in the north. Its territory is 20,8 thousand sq. km. Geographically Wales may be considered part of highland Britain, with the Cambrian Mountains occupying most of the land. It is an area of high mountains, deep valleys, waterfalls and lakes. Wales is a region of heavy rainfall brought by the prevailing west winds from the Atlantic Ocean. The valleys are sheltered by the high mountains from cold east winds. The climate is rather mild.

Northern Ireland occupies the north-eastern part of Ireland, which is separated from the island of Great Britain by the North Channel. In the south-west Northern Ireland borders on the Irish Republic (Eire). Almost all the area of Northern Ireland is a plain of volcanic origin, deepening in the centre to form the largest lake of the British Isles, Lough Neagh. The greatly indented coastline of Northern Ireland is abundant in rocks and cliffs.

The largest lake in GB and the biggest inland loch in Scotland is Loch Lomond (70 sq. km). The longest lake is Loch Ness (56 sq. km) which also has the greatest volume of water.

The rivers of Britain are short; their direction and character are determined by the position of the mountains. Most of the rivers flow in the eastward direction since the west coast is mountainous. Due to the humid climate and abundant rainfall, the water level in the rivers is
always high. The rivers seldom freeze in winter, most of them remain ice-free. Many of the rivers are joined together by canals. This system of rivers and canals provides a good means of cheap inland water transport.

The most important rivers are the Severn, flowing from the Cambrian Mountains in Wales into the Bristol Channel, the Thames, flowing across the plains of south-eastern England and emptying into the North Sea, the Tyne and the Trent, flowing from the eastern slopes of the Pennines to the North Sea, the Mersey, flowing down the western slopes of the Pennines and emptying into the Irish Sea at Liverpool, and the Clyde in Scotland, which flows west across the Southern Uplands and on which the port of Glasgow is situated.

1.2.3. British climate

The Atlantic Ocean has a significant effect on Britain’s climate. Although the British Isles are as far north in latitude as Labrador in Canada, they have a mild climate throughout the year. This is due to the Gulf Stream, a current of warm water that flows up from the Caribbean past Britain. Prevailing southwesterly winds moving across this warmer water bring moisture and moderating temperatures to the British Isles. The surrounding waters moderate temperatures year-round, making the UK warmer in winter and cooler in summer than other areas at the same latitude. Great Britain’s western coast tends to be warmer than the eastern coast, and the southern regions tend to be warmer than the northern regions. The mean annual temperature in the far north of Scotland is 6°C (43°F), and in warmer southwestern England it is 11°C (52°F).

The prevailing winds blow from the south-west. As these winds blow from the ocean, they are mild in winter and cool in summer, and are heavily charged with moisture at all times. As they approach the mountainous areas near the west coasts, they rise up the mountain slopes. Their temperature drops, which causes condensation of moisture in the form of rain. Therefore the wettest parts of Britain are those areas where high mountains lie near the west coast: the western Highlands of Scotland, the Lake District and North Wales. The eastern part of Britain is said to be in the rain-shadow, as the winds lose most of their moisture in their passage over the highlands of the west.
All parts of the British Isles receive rain at any time of the year. Still autumn and winter are the wettest seasons, except in the Thames district, where most rain falls in the summer half of the year. Oxford, for example, has 29% of its rain in summer and only 22% in winter. As to temperature, Great Britain has warmer winters than any other district in the same latitude. It is the Gulf of Mexico that brings much warmth from the equatorial regions to north-western Europe due in large measure to the prevalence of mild southwest winds.

The climate has affected settlement and development in Britain for thousands of years. The mild, wet climate ensured that thick forests rich in game, as well as rivers and streams abundant with fish, were available to prehistoric hunters and gatherers. Britain was regarded as a cold, remote, and distant part of the ancient Roman Empire, so relatively few Romans were motivated to move there for trade, administrative, or military reasons. Pre-industrial settlements clustered in southern England, where the climate was milder, the growing season longer, and the rich soil and steady rainfall produced bountiful harvests. Successive waves of invaders made the plains of southern England their primary objective. After the Industrial Revolution, populations grew enormously in areas with rich resources beneath the ground, particularly coal, even though these resources were sometimes located in the colder, harsher northern regions of England or the western Lowlands of Scotland.

1.2.4 Mineral resources

Britain’s mineral resources were historically important, but today most of these resources are either exhausted or produced in small quantities. Britain currently relies upon imports from larger, cheaper foreign supplies. Before and during the Roman occupation, about 2,000 years ago, Britain was noted for its tin mines, which were concentrated in Cornwall. The tin was mixed with copper to produce bronze, an important material in ancient times used for weapons and jewelry. Today nearly every tin mine in Britain has been exhausted and shut down.

Britain’s small deposits of iron ore were critically important to the Industrial Revolution, particularly because iron ore deposits were located close to rich deposits of coal. When iron ore and coal are heated together, they produce iron alloys, such as wrought iron. When iron ore is heated at
high temperatures with coke, a derivative of coal, it produces pig iron, a cheaper, softer iron that is more easily purified into the iron and steel essential for constructing machines and railroads. During the Industrial Revolution towns and cities sprang up close to these resources, and they remain among Britain’s leading urban areas.

Great Britain is rich in coal. There are rich coal basins in Northumberland, Lancashire, Yorkshire, Nottinghamshire, South and North Wales and near Glasgow. Coal has been worked in Britain for 700 years, and as an industry, coal mining has been in existence for over 300 years, twice as long as in any other European country.

The development of coal mining and metallurgy caused a very troublesome situation in terms of air pollution. It was in Britain that the word “smog” was used to describe a mixture of smoke and fog. As the world’s first industrialized country, its cities were the first to suffer this atmospheric condition. The situation in London reached its worst point in 1952. At the end of that year particularly bad smog, which lasted for several days, was estimated to have caused between 4,000 and 8,000 deaths. Laws were passed which forbade the heating of homes with open coal fires in city areas and which stopped much of the pollution from factories.

In the end of the 19th century oil and gas began to play the role of the most important source of power and fuel. Up to the early 1960s, over 99% of Britain’s petroleum requirements were imported, primarily from the Middle Eastern countries. Since then considerable discoveries of crude oil and natural gas have been made in the North Sea, and first oil was brought ashore in 1975. It has changed Britain’s energy position, as the country became self-sufficient in energy. With the growth in offshore oil production Britain became an important oil exporter mostly to the USA and Germany. It’s necessary to mention a number of non-metallic minerals. The major of them are: sandstones and limestone (used in house construction); clay (the manufacture of bricks); chalk (is used in cement industry); common salt and rock salt (form the basic raw materials for a variety of chemicals).
Questions and Assignments

1. Outline the geographical position of the British Isles in the world. Examine the territory and structure of the British Isles.

2. Name main factors which influence the British climate. What are the warmest/coldest months of the year? What winds are prevailing in the British Isles? Why?

3. What role does the relief play? Characterize the coastline of the British Isles referring to the benefits of its identity.

4. What natural resources contributed to the development of the country in the 19th century? How did the situation change in the 20th century?

5. How would you comment on the statement “Britain has got no climate, only weather”?


7. Prepare the projects (power point presentations) on the following topics:
   - The main mountain areas of the British Isles;
   - The rivers and lakes of the British Isles;
   - British weather: myth and reality;
   - Comparative characteristics of natural features of Great Britain and Belarus.

8. Write an essay “Britain is a dynamic country with picturesque and charming regional variations”.

TOPIC 1.3 AN OUTLINE OF EARLY BRITISH HISTORY

1.3.1 Ancient history of the nation

Approximately in 700 BC Britain was invaded by the Celts, who are supposed to have come from Central Europe or further east, from Southern Russia. They were tall, strong people with long red or sandy hair, armed with iron swords and knives which were much stronger than
the bronze weapons used by the native population. The first group of invaders was called the Goidels or Gaels. They occupied the central part of GB and later western and northern areas. The original language of Ireland and North-west Scotland is thus Gaelic.

The second wave of Celtic tribes, the Brythonic Celts or Brythons, from whose name — according to one of the versions — is derived the word “Britain”, arrived in England between 600 and 500 BC, and settled in the South of England and South West Scotland. Their language developed into the Celtic language of modern Wales. The third wave of invaders, Belgae (the Belgic tribes) arrived about 100 BC and occupied the greater part the central part of GB. The earliest Celts were in the bronze stage of development, but later Celtic invaders brought with them the knowledge of iron working. Trade, industry and agriculture flourished, as did the sheep and cattle breeding. They established a warrior aristocracy and a number of tribal kingdoms.

The Britons were polytheistic, that is they believed in many gods. They believed that different gods lived in the thickest and darkest parts of the forests. Some plants, such as the mistletoe and the oak-tree, were considered sacred. Some historians think that the Britons were governed by a class of priests called Druids who had great power over them. Stonehenge was the temple of the Druids, just as it had been the temple of the primitive men before.

At the turn of the Christian era it was the close relations of Britain to Gaul which first attracted the notice of the Romans. The reason for the Romans to invade Britain was the fact that the country produced and exported corn, animals, hunting dogs and slaves. So the Romans could make use of British food, at least, for their own army fighting with Gauls. So, they prepared for an invasion. Julius Caesar was the first to carry the Roman banner to the British Isles. In 55 BC he landed and engaged the Britons but soon withdrew his troops because the local opposition was strong. The following year with an army of 25,000 he landed again and penetrated where the London now stands, there he defeated the Celtic tribesmen. He levied tribute upon them but again withdrew without making a permanent occupation.
1.3.2 The beginning of the Christian era and after

In AD 43 the Roman Emperor Claudius sent an army to Britain which conquered the southern part of the island. It was not an easy task. The Britons rose again and again, sword in hand. One of the most famous rebellions against the Romans was led by Boadicea, a British queen (circa AD 61). The Britons forced the Romans out of London, and some 70,000 Romans were killed in a few days. The Romans retaliated with a vengeance.

The Romans could not conquer “Caledonia”, as they called Scotland. At last Emperor built a great wall of earth, known as the Hadrian’s Wall, more than 70 miles long, to keep out Picts and Scots. According to another version, the name “Britain” comes from the word “Pretani”, the Greco-Roman word for the inhabitants of Britain. The Romans mispronounced the word and called the island “Britania”. The island got one more name. It was the name of “Albion”. It meant “white land”, because the first view for most visitors was the white cliffs near Dover.

In the north and the west the older social order remained much untouched, while in the towns and where the Roman type villas were concentrated, the slave-owning system developed. Otherwise the old way of life of the British Celts did not change very much. The Romans brought law and order, fine buildings, roads and towns, and what is more important peace for more than 300 years. The Romans brought the skills of reading and writing to Britain. The written word was important for spreading ideas and also for establishing power. While the Celtic peasantry remained illiterate and only Celtic speaking, a number of town dwellers spoke Latin and Greek.

There’s one remarkable point about the Roman period in the history of the UK. Despite their long occupation in Britain, the Romans left not very much behind. Most of their villas, baths, temples, the impressive network of roads and the cities they founded, including Londinium, were soon destroyed or fell into disrepair. Probably the only long lasting reminders are place names on the territory of modern England (such as Chester, Lancaster, Gloucester); a layer of the Roman borrowings in the lexical system of modern English. The Christian religion was first brought to Britain by means of Roman ships.

Soon after the departure of the Romans (407) the Celts retained their independence for a short period of time. From the middle of the V century
they were the subject to numerous attacks of the Germanic tribes of the Jutes, the Angles and the Saxons. At first the Germanic tribes only raided Britain, but after AD 430 they began to settle. The Angles settled in the east, and also in the north Midlands, while the Saxons settled in a band of land from the Thames Estuary westwards.

1.3.3 The Anglo-Saxon period

For a long time the tribes of Angles, Saxons and Jutes fought with one another for supreme power. As a result, Britain split up into seven kingdoms. At the beginning of the ninth century Wessex became the leading kingdom and united the rest of England in the fight against the new invaders (the Danes). Since 829 the greater part of the country was united under the name of “England”.

In the course of the struggle of the Celts against the Anglo-Saxons many legends emerged of which most famous is the legend of the Court of King Arthur. The Welsh historian Nennius first mentioned Arthur by name in the 9th-century Historia Brittonum (History of the Britons), but a full account of his life did not appear until about 300 years later, in the Historia Regum Britanniae by Welsh writer Geoffrey of Monmouth. Romances were composed in the 13th century.

In English, one of the most important Arthurian achievements is The Death of Arthur by Sir Thomas Malory. This work draws together the full Arthurian story from a variety of sources. Arthurian themes again became popular in the 1800s. Whether such person really lived, whether there were several people whose histories came to be confused together under one name, or whether all about him was invention, no one knows.

Having become the most powerful kingdom of England, Wessex began to face a most dangerous enemy. They were the Danes from Denmark and the Norsemen from the Scandinavian Peninsula. They’re frequently called the Vikings. These two Scandinavian peoples were closely related with one another. In the very beginning the Vikings were pagans while the Anglo-Saxons had already accepted Christianity. During their first raids the Vikings burnt churches and monasteries. The Anglo-Saxons understood that their small kingdoms must unite in order to struggle against the Danes successfully. Egbert, king of Wessex,
united several kingdoms under the name of England and became the first king of the united country.

Alfred, the grandson of Egbert, became king in the year 871, when England’s danger was greatest. The Danes, who had settled on the eastern shores of Britain, continued robbing and killing the people of England and occupying more and more land. There were some years of peace during which Alfred built the first English navy. The kingdom that was in Alfred’s possession was Wessex. Alfred is the only king of England who got the name Great. He is famous for having tried to enlighten his people. He worked out a code of laws. He translated the Church history and parts of the Bible from Latin into Anglo-Saxon. He started the famous *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, which is the first history of England.

Anglo-Saxons gave the Danes a great battle at Maldon in AD 991. The Danes were defeated in this battle, but still they remained very strong and dangerous.

### 1.3.4 Christianity in Britain

Christianity was brought to Britain from Rome by Christian refugees who were fiercely prosecuted for their faith at home. In the year 306, the Roman Emperor Constantine stopped the prosecution of the Christians and became a Christian himself. It became the official religion in Britain, too. The Druids disappeared. The new religion was called the Catholic Church (“catholic” means “universal”). The Greek and Latin languages became the languages of the Church all over Europe. When the Anglo-Saxons, who were pagans, invaded Britain, most of the British Christians were killed. Towards the end of the VI century Christian monks began coming from Rome to Britain again. The first Catholic Church was built in the town of Canterbury.

Curiously, the spread of Christianity is also associated with the activities of St Patrick, the national saint of Ireland. He was probably born in Wales, the son of a Roman father. Patrick became a monk in Gaul (in France) and went to Ireland in AD 432. He converted many people to Christianity, and there are many stories about his great powers, including one which explains why there are no snakes in Ireland. Patrick is said to have tricked them all so that they went into the sea and drowned. He is also said to have used the shamrock plant to
explain the Christian idea of the Trinity, because it has three leaves on one stem. That is why it is traditional for Irish people to wear a shamrock on St Patrick’s Day, 17 March.

Nowadays, the United Kingdom guarantees its citizens religious freedom without interference from the state or the community, and most of the world’s religions have followers in Britain. As in many European countries today, the majority of the population in Britain does not regularly attend religious services, yet nearly all faiths have devoted congregations of active members. An increasing percentage of the population professes no religious faith and some organizations represent secular outlooks. The United Kingdom has two established churches: the Church of England and the Church of Scotland. Anglicans also speak of themselves as a catholic, or universal, church, with a lowercase c, meaning that their beliefs are intended for humankind as a whole.

The British monarch, who must be a member of the Anglican Church, holds the titles of Supreme Governor of the Church of England and Defender of the Faith. The monarch appoints archbishops and bishops upon the advice of the prime minister, who consults a commission that includes both lay people and clergy. Two archbishops and 24 senior bishops sit in the House of Lords. About 45% of the British population is Anglican. A third of the marriages in Britain are performed in the Anglican Church. Many members are merely baptized, married, and buried in the church, but do not otherwise attend services. More than a million people attend the Church of England on an average Sunday.

Questions and Assignments

1. What were the major achievements of Celtic civilization?
2. What part of Britain was occupied during the Roman invasion? How did the Roman way of life influence the life of the Celts? What traces are there of Roman rule in Britain?
3. Why is the Germanic conquest one of the governing events in the English history? What forms of governance and institutions were created by the Anglo-Saxons?
4. How did the conversion of the Anglo-Saxons to Christianity facilitate the political unity and influence the cultural development of Britain?
5. Scan the text and fill in the following table:
6. Write an essay “Britain: the foundation stones”.

**TOPIC 1.4 AN OUTLINE OF MEDIEVAL BRITISH HISTORY**

**1.4.1 The formative centuries (1066—1500s)**

The Norman Conquest began the new era in the history of GB, the era of feudalism. On October 14, 1066 the decisive battle between the Anglo-Saxons and the invading Normans took place at Hastings. Though the Anglo-Saxon army fought bravely it was defeated and King Harold was killed. Thus, 1066 is the official date of the establishment of the Norman rule over England. December 25, 1066 is the date of William the Conqueror's coronation. This conquest opens up the period of final establishment of feudalism in England. 20 years after the conquest in 1086 William ordered a record, or register of all land-holdings to be made. The Saxons called the register the Doomsday Book.

The Norman invaders brought their language with them too. They spoke a Norman dialect of French and it became the tongue of the court circles, administration, and the official language of the state. Latin was the language of the church, law and learning. The wealthy Anglo-Saxons copied their superiors and also learned to speak French. However, the common people, the peasantry and the inhabitants of towns, continued to speak Anglo-Saxon.

In the 12th century a new dynasty was established when Henry II (1154—1189) became king of England. He came from France and he was called Henry Plantagenet. To his new English possessions he soon added some Scotch territory, established his lordship over Wales and made...
“conquests” in Ireland. He removed most of the old sheriffs and replaced them by appointees of his own who were better tax collectors. Henry II was succeeded by Richard the Lionhearted, who loved adventure and conflict and typified the chivalry of the time. On Richard’s death John, (who had the nickname of Lack Land) became the king (1199—1216).

John was unwise enough to make an attack on the church over the filling of the vacant seat of Archbishop of Canterbury at the time when Pope Innocent III was in power. He with the help of powerful barons made John on June 15, 1215 at a field called Runnymede by the river Thames sign the programme of demands expressed by the barons in a document known as Magna Carta or Great Charter. This document provided the church and the barons with their old rights and liberties. The document also established that the king may not collect any taxes (except the feudal taxes), save with the consent of his royal council, which slowly developed into a parliament. Fifty years later, in 1265, Simon de Monfort summoned the first elected Parliament. Sometime later, Parliament was separated into two Houses: one including the nobility and higher clergy, the other including the knights and burgesses, and no law could be made, nor any tax levied, without the consent of both Houses as well as of the Sovereign.

1.4.2 Wars and conflicts of the medieval period

Medieval times saw bitter clashes between England and Scotland. Scottish history knows many names of the patriots of the country, one of whom was William Wallace (c. 1270—1305). He led an army against the English forces of King Edward I, who had occupied Scotland, and defeated them in 1297. The following year Wallace was himself defeated, and was later captured and hanged. The film Braveheart (1995) was made about his life. The King of Scotland Robert the Bruce (1274—1329) joined William Wallace in trying to take power from the English in Scotland, but was defeated several times by the army of King Edward I. He finally defeated the English, and England recognized Scotland as an independent country.

There is a popular story about how Robert the Bruce, when he was hiding in a cave from the English, watched a spider repeatedly trying to
attach its web to a rock until it finally succeeded. This made him
determined to keep trying to defeat the English.

In 1348 an epidemic of the plague that was called the Black Death was
brought to England from France. People died within 24 hours, soon one-
third of England’s population had perished. Position of common people
was very difficult that time as far as the country didn’t have enough
laborers to work on the lords’ fields and their work was paid very little. In
1381 peasants revolted. Sixty thousand people from Essex and Kent
marched to London led by Wat Tyler and Jack Straw. They wanted to see
the king. The king promised to fulfill their demands, but didn’t keep his
promise. Wat Tyler was murdered and the rebellion was suppressed.

England lost practically all its lands in France during the Hundred
Years’ War, which ended in 1453. Yet there was no peace in the
country. Long before the end of this war, a feudal struggle had broken
out. During the Hundred Years’ War some of the barons, who were
professional soldiers, built castles with high walls and kept private
armies of thousands of men. They thought more about their “family
politics” than about national politics and were a real threat to the king’s
power. Realizing the danger which these big barons represented to the
Crown, Edward III tried to marry his sons to their daughters. But that
did not help to strengthen the position of the reigning House. The feudal
struggle grew into an open war — the War of the Roses which ended
with the battle of Bosworth in 1485. King Richard III of the House of
York was killed in the battle, and, right in the field, Henry Tudor, Earl
of Richmond, was proclaimed King of England.

1.4.3 Tudor England

Henry Tudor was very important in establishing the new monarchy.
He had the same ideas and opinions as the growing classes of merchants
and gentry, and he based royal power on good relations with these classes.
His son Henry VIII was quite unlike his father. As a young man Henry
was known for his love of hunting, sport and music, but he did not rule
well and the country was in a weak and uncertain state when he died.
He was cruel and wasteful with money. He spent so much on maintaining
a rich court and on wars, that his father’s carefully saved money was soon
gone. He wanted to have an important influence on European politics.
Henry disliked power of the Church in England: it was an international organization, so he could not completely control it. The power of the Catholic Church in England could work against Henry’s authority. Besides, Henry had another reason for opposing to the authority of the Church. Henry had married Catherine of Aragon. But by 1526 she had still not had a son who could be the heir to the throne after Henry’s death. Henry asked the Pope to allow him to divorce Catherine. The Pope forbade Henry’s divorce.

In 1531 the Church of England was established in the country, and this became law after Parliament passed the Act of Supremacy. Now Henry was free to divorce Catherine and marry his new love, Anne Boleyn. In fact, this marriage ended the life of Henry Tudor’s great contemporary, Sir Thomas More (1478—1535) who was an English politician, author and scholar. He had become a friend of the King, who first employed him as a representative in foreign countries. Thomas More became a member of the Privy Council, and was made a knight. In 1529 he became Lord Chancellor. However, More refused to accept the Act of Supremacy. For this he was put in prison and then executed. Thomas More was also the author of *Utopia*, in which he described his ideas of a perfect society. It was very successful all over Europe.

Henry’s break with Rome was purely political. He simply wanted to control the Church and to keep its wealth in his own kingdom. He did not approve of the new ideas of Reformation Protestantism introduced by Martin Luther in Germany and John Calvin in Geneva. He still believed in the Catholic faith. But when he broke with Rome, he wanted to make the break legal. Between 1532 and 1536 Parliament passed several Acts, by which England officially became a Protestant country, even though the popular religion was still Catholic.

1.4.4 The age of Elizabeth

What happened next is a sad and sordid tale of political intrigue and machination. When Henry died, his nine year old son inherited the throne. From 1553, under the reign of Henry’s Roman Catholic daughter, Mary I, the Reformation legislation was repealed and England once again was turned into a Roman Catholic state. She married the King of Spain. Mary had 283 Protestants burnt at the stake for heresy, which is more than twice
as many people executed for heresy in the previous 150 years. This resulted in the Queen becoming known as “Bloody Mary”.

Mary died childless and her half-sister Elizabeth inherited the throne in 1558. Elizabeth I wanted to find a peaceful answer to the problems of the English Reformation. She wanted to bring together again parts of English society which were in disagreement. The struggle between Catholics and Protestants continued to endanger Elizabeth’s position for the next thirty years. There was a special danger from those Catholic nobles in England who wished to remove Elizabeth and replace her with the queen of Scotland, who was a Catholic.

Mary, the Scottish queen, usually called Queen of Scots, was the heir to the English throne because she was Elizabeth’s closest living relative, as Elizabeth had no children. Mary quarreled with some of her nobles and had to escape to England, where Elizabeth kept her as a prisoner for almost twenty years. During that time Elizabeth discovered several secret Catholic plots aimed at making Mary queen of England. Finally Elizabeth agreed to Mary’s execution in 1587.

Yet Elizabeth’s reputation is incredibly high in her home country. Her reign — the Elizabethan era — is always associated with the English Renaissance, though the latter covers a period both before and after Elizabeth’s reign. In fact, the Renaissance starts with book printing that was begun by William Caxton in 1476.

Anyway, it was during Elizabeth’s reign that Shakespeare lived and worked, along with many other great Renaissance figures like Francis Bacon, Edmund Spenser and Christopher Marlow. By the way, England abolished its astrologers and alchemists at that time, so it came closer to reaching modern science with the Baconian Method, a forerunner of the modern scientific method of data analysis.

The English Renaissance reached its apex around the year 1600, and concluded roughly during the Restoration in the 1660s. After Shakespeare’s death, the poet and dramatist Ben Jonson was the leading literary figure. A tradition of Bible translation into English which began with the work of William Tyndale resulted in the publication of the King James Version of the Bible on 1611. It became the standard Bible. Other important figures of the period are the poet John Milton and the philosopher John Locke.

When Elizabeth died, one of the great epochs of English history ended. Her 45-year rule decisively shaped the future of England as
a stable monarchy governed through the cooperation of crown and local elites. The Protestant religion was firmly established as England’s faith, and though religious conflict was to be a serious problem for another century, it was within the context of the Elizabethan church settlement that the battles were fought. The defeat of the Spanish Armada was a cause for national celebration, and “Glorious ‘88” was spoken of generations later when Elizabeth’s birthday was still celebrated as a national holiday. The defeat of Spain established the glory of the English navy and inspired merchants and explorers toward colonization of a wider world.

Questions and Assignments

1. Prove that the Norman Conquest began the new era in the history of Great Britain, the era of feudalism. Why was the growth of feudalism accompanied by wars and family conflicts?
2. Who were the Tudors? Why are they so famous? What did they accomplish? What is the “Tudor Rose”?
3. Why did Henry VIII have six wives?
4. Comment on the reasons and results of English Reformation.
5. Why is Mary I called “Bloody Mary”?
6. Was Elizabeth I truly a great queen? Did Elizabeth ever plan to marry anyone? Why was Elizabeth really called a “Virgin Queen”? Why did Elizabeth I leave her throne to James I of Scotland?
7. Why is the 1588 battle with the Spanish Armada so famous?
8. Note that the period is marked by the activities of outstanding kings and queens. Fill in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tudor Kings</th>
<th>Achievements / Legacies</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Henry VIII</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elisabeth I</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mary I</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Mary, Queen of Scots</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9. Prepare the projects (power point presentations) on the following topics:
The War of the Roses in Great Britain.
Henry VIII as a personality and a monarch. The peculiarities of his rule.
Elizabeth I — the great daughter of the great father.
The English Renaissance as the period of great personalities.

10. Write an essay “The century of Tudor rule”.

TOPIC 1.5 THE PURITAN REVOLUTION AND AFTER

1.5.1 The Civil War

In 1603 Elizabeth died, she left the new king James I with a huge debt. James had to ask Parliament to raise a tax to pay the debt. Parliament agreed, but in return insisted on the right to discuss James’s home and foreign policy. James managed to rule the country without Parliament till 1621. The situation in the country was not simple. The history of the Gunpowder Plot and the fate of Guy Fawkes (1570—1606) show that clearly. Fawkes was one of the people involved in the Gunpowder Plot to blow up the British Houses of Parliament. He is the most famous of the conspirators because he was caught with the gunpowder, tortured, and later killed. Since then, there is a tradition in Britain of burning “guys” representing him every year on Guy Fawkes Night, November 5.

The next king Charles I relied with Parliament even more bitterly than his father had done. More than once Charles dissolved Parliament, but had to recall it again because he needed money. In 1628, in return for money, Parliament wanted Charles to sign a document known as the Petition of Rights, which would give Parliament the right to control the national budget and the law. Charles dissolved Parliament again and successfully ruled without Parliament.

But the religious situation in Britain was aggravated. There were people in the country who disagreed with the teachings of the Church of England. They thought that the services of the Church of England was too complicated and too rich and took too much money. They were called Puritans. Catholics disliked Puritans that’s why some tried to find a new paradise in America. The first group of Puritans left England for good in August 1620 on board the Mayflower.
1.5.2 The Republican rule

That time Ireland exploded in rebellion against the Protestant English settlers. 3,000 people were killed. Parliament quarreled over who should lead an army to defeat the rebels. Many MPs were afraid to give an army to Charles; they thought that Charles would use the army in order to dissolve Parliament by force and to rule alone again. Most of the House of Lords and a few from the House of Commons supported Charles. The Royalists were known as Cavaliers, controlled most of the north-west. Parliament controlled the east and south-east, including London. Their short hair gave the Parliamentarian soldiers their popular name of Roundheads. The two armies clashed eventually. The first battle, fought in October 1642, was indecisive. The king rejected Parliament’s conditions for his return to power; his intransigence aggravated the divisions among the victors. The army, more independent in religion and radical in politics than the Presbyterians who dominated Parliament, seized the king. Found guilty, Charles I was executed on January 30, 1649.

Several MPs had commanded the Parliamentarian army during the Civil War. One of them was a gentleman farmer named Oliver Cromwell. He had created a new “model” army. Instead of country people or gentry Cromwell invited into his army educated men wanted to fight for their beliefs. Cromwell and his advisers created the Republic called the Commonwealth. From 1649 till 1660 Britain was the republic.

The tragic thing was that Cromwell and his associates created a government which was far more severe than Charles had been. They got rid of the monarchy, and now they got rid of the House of Lords. The need for a permanent, settled government remained, and the power resided in Cromwell and the army. In December 1653 Cromwell accepted the Instrument of Government, a written constitution, which created a protectorate consisting of himself as Lord Protector and a one-house Parliament.

The Scots were shocked by the King’s execution. They invited his son, whom they recognized as King Charles II, to join them and fight against the Parliamentarian army. But they were defeated; the young Charles himself had to escape to France. So land was brought under English republican rule. Cromwell also took an army to Ireland to punish them for killing Protestants in 1641. Soon Cromwell became unpopular because of his
politics, severe rules and bans of celebrating Christmas and Easter, or to play games on Sunday. Cromwell died on September 3, 1658, and the drift toward anarchy was halted by the commander of the army in Scotland. He marched into London with his troops and recalled the Long Parliament, which then restored Charles II to the throne in May 1660.

1.5.3 The events after 1660

When Charles II became king he promised general pardon, and religious toleration, which was received with a burst of national enthusiasm. In May 1660 monarchy was restored in England. The period of 1660—1688 is known as the Restoration. It is characterised by a struggle for power between the feudal aristocracy and the bourgeoisie and gentry which had secured a dominant position in the society during the revolution. The feudal aristocracy was dreaming of a complete return to the pre-revolutionary days, while the bourgeoisie desperately tried to retain the privileges gained during the revolution.

Nobody can say that England did well in the period of Restoration. There happened the Great Plague (1665—1666) and the Great Fire of London (1666), and the country was losing a lot in the sphere of foreign policy. In this period we can see the beginning of what we now know as the modern political system of Great Britain. The two political parties appeared at that time — the Tories and the Whigs. Later they turned into the Conservative and Liberal parties. The Whigs was a rude name for cattle drivers. The Whigs were afraid of an absolute monarchy and of the Catholic faith. The other party, which opposed the Whigs, was nicknamed Tories, which is an Irish name for thieves. The Tories, who were natural inheritors of the Royalists of the Civil War, supported the Crown and the Church. The Revolution of 1688 deposed James in favor of his nephew, William of Orange. William was a Dutch protestant noble who had married James’ daughter Mary.

In the XVII century Britain’s main rivals were Spain, Holland and France. There was a competition in trade between England and Holland. Colonizing foreign lands was important for economic development. Britain did not have as many colonies abroad as Spain or Holland, but it had greater variety. Britain had twelve colonies on the east coast of North America which were started with the help of John Smith early in
the 17th century. In the West Indies it had new colonies where sugar was grown. Besides, by this time Britain’s East India Company had established its first trading settlements in India, on both the west and east coasts. There were many colonial wars which led to the emergence of the British colonial empire. It eventually reached the farthest corners of the world, like Australia discovered by Captain James Cook.

The 18th century marked the beginning of the period of the Enlightenment in England. Great scientists worked at that time such as Isaac Newton. The writers and scholars Jonathan Swift, Daniel Defoe and Samuel Johnson contributed to the development of the literary language. The architect of London, Sir Christopher Wren is noted for his St. Paul’s Cathedral and dozens of other structures. The Enlightenment saw the development of humanitarian thought. Individuals like the poet and painter William Blake created their own artistic philosophies.

1.5.4 The Industrial Revolution

By the middle of the 18th century industry began to use coal for changing iron ore into good quality iron or steel. This laid the foundation for the Industrial Revolution. This made Britain the leading iron producer in Europe. Increased iron production made it possible to manufacture new machinery for other industries. In the middle of the century other countries were buying British uniforms, equipment and weapons for their armies.

The industry most often associated with the Industrial Revolution is the textile industry. A series of extraordinary innovations reduced and then replaced the human labor required to make cloth. British inventor John Kay created a device known as the flying shuttle, which partially mechanized the process of weaving. The British inventor and industrialist James Hargreaves invented the spinning jenny, a machine that spins a number of threads at once. The most important results of these changes were enormous increases in the output of goods per worker. A single spinner or weaver, for example, could now turn out many times the volume of yarn or cloth that earlier workers had produced.

James Watt, a laboratory assistant from Scotland, developed a new type of steam engine. At first the engine was used only for stationary work, but later on it was modified by George Stephenson to drive locomotives. In 1825 the first railway was built. The development of
technology was advanced further by outstanding engineers like Isambard Brunel. He was responsible for building more than 1,600 km of railway in the West Country, the Midlands, South Wales, and Ireland. His approach to engineering was always creative. Brunel Junior is best remembered for his outstanding contribution to marine engineering. Later in life, he designed three huge ships. The Great Eastern built in 1858 is probably the most well-known of the three. It was the largest steamship in the world in the second half of the 19th century.

The social consequences of the Industrial Revolution were dramatic and far-reaching. English society was breaking up into 2 basic classes — the owners of factories (the capitalists) and the workers (the proletarians). While the owners gained profits the working conditions were terrible and the wages were very small. Hand-workers were losing their jobs to the new machines. The enclosure movement created an abundant labour supply. Thousands of peasants became landless and ruined and were forced to migrate to the growing towns where they were consumed by the growing industry.

**Questions and Assignments**

1. Recall the major historical and political events of the 18th century:
   a) the establishment of the Stuart dynasty;
   b) Charles I’s dissolution of the Parliament;
   c) the growth of the Puritan movement;
   d) the Civil War (1642-1648);
   e) execution of the king and proclamation of the Republic with Cromwell as the leader (1649);
   f) restoration of the monarchy (1660);
   g) the Glorious Revolution of 1688.

2. Speak on the main events that happened in political system of Great Britain.

3. Comment on the reasons and results of the Industrial Revolution.

4. Name the main scientists and writers of the Enlightenment.

5. Write an essay “The 17th century as the stormy period of English history”.
TOPIC 1.6 THE VICTORIAN AGE, LONG AND GLORIOUS

1.6.1 The Victorian Age (1837—1901)

As a result of the industrial revolution, Britain became the workshop of the world. British factories were producing more than any other country in the world. Having many colonies, Britain controlled large areas of the world. The British had a strong feeling of their importance. Queen Victoria is associated with Britain’s great age of industrial expansion, economic progress and, especially, the growth of the colonial empire. At her death, Britain had a worldwide empire on which the sun never set. It was during the mid-1850s that the word “Victorian” began to be employed to express a new self-consciousness, both in relation to the nation and to the period through which it was passing. In 1851 Queen Victoria opened the Great Exhibition of the Industries of All Nations in the Crystal Palace in London. The aim of the Exhibition was to show the world the greatness of Britain’s industry. The exhibition was a triumph.

The Victorian Age knows many outstanding personalities who contributed to the development of the nation. They are great engineers like Isambard Brunel, public figures like Florence Nightingale, travelers like David Livingstone, and a great number of world-class artists. For example, the Victorian era produced an amazing number of popular novelists and poets. Perhaps the most famous authors of this time were Charles Dickens, William Makepeace Thackeray, the Bronte sisters — Charlotte, Emily, and Anne, Robert Louis Stevenson, Alfred, Lord Tennyson.

Advances in science were prominent, too. During the Victorian age, Michael Faraday’s and James Maxwell’s work led to the practical application of the electric power. Biologist Charles Darwin developed the theory of evolution through natural selection, which radically influenced modern science and thought. Indeed, it was a pioneering breakthrough. Surgeon Joseph Lister introduced antiseptic surgery in the 1860s which helped reduce mortality during operations.

During the Victorian Age Britain was at its most powerful and self-confident. Many famous traits of the British mentality, such as snobbery, conservatism and imperial outlook, humbug and hypocrisy appeared. From the early 1850s to the early 1870s, almost all sections of the population
seemed to be benefiting from relative prosperity. It was during these years, when great individual creative power was tapped, that Victorianism, perhaps the only “ism” in history attached to the name of a sovereign, came to represent a cluster of restraining moral attributes — character, duty, will, earnestness, hard work, respectable comportment and behavior, and thrift. Yet despite their widespread appeal, all of these Victorian virtues were subjected to contemporary criticism.

1.6.2 Political movements of the Victorian Age

At first most textile factories were comparatively small, employing fewer than 100 workers. They were efficient and initially allowed families to remain together, husbands weaving, wives spinning, and children fetching and carrying. Ultimately, however, factories disrupted family life. Women and children easily operated the power-driven machines, and they worked the same 12-hour days as men. Since factory owners could pay women and children lower wages, men were driven out of the industry. In some communities, displaced workers attacked factories and factory owners. In others, rioters known as Luddites attacked the machines themselves. Luddites attempted to defend their communities and their way of life, but they were unable to stop the development of new factories.

Since 1824 workers began joining together to struggle against employers for their rights and better wages. The first workers’ unions were small and weak. The introduction of a cheap postage system greatly helped the unions to organize themselves across the country: for one penny a letter could be sent to anyone, anywhere in Britain. In 1838 the workers’ unions worked out a document called a People’s Charter. The Charter demanded rights that are now accepted by everyone: the vote for adults, the right for a man without property to be an MP, secret voting, and payment for MPs. The House of Commons refused to meet these demands. As result, there was a wave of riots and political meetings.

When Parliament again rejected the charter, the Chartists planned direct action in the form of a general strike. Thus, a political reform movement, Chartism, began. As the strike failed, but an insurrection broke out in 1839, and many Chartist leaders were arrested and imprisoned. Chartism was in a period of decline until 1848, when another
petition was sent to Parliament. Despite a large public demonstration, the charter was again rejected. The Chartist movement gradually disintegrated thereafter, but most of its program, except the demand for annual parliamentary elections, eventually became law.

Another prominent feature of British political scene is the woman-suffrage movement. The great pioneer figure of British feminism was the writer Mary Wollstonecraft. During the 1830s and ‘40s British suffragism received notable aid and encouragement from the Chartists, who fought unsuccessfully for a sweeping program of human rights. In subsequent years the woman-suffrage issue was kept before the British public by a succession of liberal legislators, among them the statesmen and social philosophers. In 1903 the dissident and more militant faction, led by the feminist Emmeline Pankhurst, established the Women’s Social and Political Union. Pankhurst’s suffragists soon won a reputation for boldness and militancy. Tactics employed by the organization included boycotting, bombing, window breaking, picketing, and harassment of anti-suffragist legislators.

1.6.3 Social issues during the Victorian Age

The earliest and most persistent movement for social reform concerned child labor. Children formed an important component of the industrial labor force because employers could pay them lower wages. From a very young age they worked the same hours as their parents in the same difficult conditions. Parliament first limited the hours children could work in textile factories in 1833, following a public outcry over a parliamentary inquiry into working conditions for children. The law prevented children under nine years of age from working more than nine hours per day. In 1842 a law extended this protection to children working in mines. Other improvements were made. For instance, an act of 1881 finally made education compulsory for children aged five to ten.

The underlying belief of Victorian society was in progress — that things were better than ever before and could be made better still. This belief was the impetus for thousands of voluntary associations that worked to improve the lives of the poor both at home and abroad. It also underlay the charitable foundations created by wealthy benefactors and
the public philanthropies of some of the greatest industrialists. Social experiments were conducted by individuals such as factory owner Robert Owen, who founded utopian communities in which wealth was held in common.

Concern with social issues led people like William Booth to looking for other ways to ameliorate the society. In 1865 Booth and his wife, to propagate the Christian faith and to furnish spiritual and material aid to needy persons, founded the Christian Mission in London, which later became known as the Salvation Army. Members of the army, equipped with uniforms and flags, drums and cornets, were greeted with riotous demonstrations on their first appearances in the streets and were frequently arrested for disturbing the peace. The work progressed, however, and branches of the army were established in all parts of the world, with international headquarters in London.

The age produced outstanding individuals like Florence Nightingale who was a hospital reformer, and humanitarian. After the Crimean War broke out, Nightingale was stirred by reports of the primitive sanitation methods and inadequate nursing facilities at the British barracks-hospital and volunteered her services in Crimea. Through her tireless efforts the mortality rate among the sick and the wounded was greatly reduced. Florence Nightingale’s contributions to the evolution of nursing as a profession were invaluable. Through her efforts the status of nursing was raised to a medical profession with high standards of education and important responsibilities.

1.6.4 Cultural life: literature and other arts

During the last two-thirds of the 19th century, the Victorian era produced an amazing number of popular novelists and poets. This time period saw the rise of an increasingly urbanized, middle-class, and educated society that included a much larger reading audience. Many authors wrote about characters and situations well-known or easily comprehensible to their audience and became universally popular and in touch with their vast readership to a degree not matched in the 20th century. Perhaps the most famous author of this time was Charles Dickens, who portrayed the hardships of the working class while criticizing middle-class life.
Writers prominent during the heart of the Victorian period include William Makepeace Thackeray, who wrote humorous portrayals of middle- and upper-class life; the Bronte sisters — Charlotte, Emily, and Anne — whose novels tended to be autobiographical; and Robert Louis Stevenson, who wrote children’s books, adventure stories, and poetry. The Victorian age was the time when Rudyard Kipling rose to literary stardom later becoming the first-ever British winner of the Nobel Prize for literature in 1907.

Many painters stood against Victorian middle-class materialism, with its concern for worldly objects. In 1848 several painters came together and founded a movement called the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood. They sought to return to an earlier, simpler time, and their works exhibited the brightness, color, and purity of medieval and Renaissance painting done before the time of Italian artist Raphael. Artist and poet William Morris sought to return to medieval traditions in craftsmanship. He is credited with founding the Arts and Crafts movement, which became influential in furniture, decorative items, and textile designs.

Victorian architecture borrowed from a variety of styles, including classical, Gothic, and Renaissance. The most famous Victorian neo-Gothic building is Parliament, built between 1840 and 1870. The only truly original building of the Victorian era was the Crystal Palace. It was designed by English architect Joseph Paxton to house the Great Exhibition of 1851. Spreading over 7.3 hectares (18 acres), the building consisted entirely of panels of glass set within iron frames. Paxton adapted two major features of the Industrial Revolution to the architecture of the Crystal Palace: mass production (in the manufactured glass panels and iron frames) and the use of iron rather than traditional masonry (stones or brick). Many things were done for the first time during that famous exhibition. For instance, the first constructions of dinosaurs were exhibited at the Crystal Palace, where their creator zoologist Richard Owen held a banquet inside the belly of the Iguanodon before its reconstruction was completed.

Questions and Assignments

1. What words best describe the period of Victoria’s reign? Is the Victorian Period a complex period? Is the Victorian Period a great period? Is the Victorian Period a period of change?
2. Speak about the reign of Queen Victoria as the period of deeply conservative morality and the rise of the middle class.

3. Describe the peculiarities of English Victorian Society (Supplement A). What were the main changes in social structure?

4. What was the Great Exhibition and why can it be said to have been a particularly important event in Victoria’s reign?

5. What were the main social movements of the Victorian Age? How did they influence the life of common people? What was the role of women during the Victorian Period?

6. The Victorian era produced an amazing number of popular novelists and poets, scientists and inventors. Fill in the following table (at least 10 names):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Field</th>
<th>Main Achievements</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Charles Dickens</td>
<td>Literature</td>
<td>Dickens completed 14 novels and started another. They are <em>Oliver Twist</em>, <em>A Christmas Carol</em>, <em>Hard Times</em>, <em>Great Expectations</em>, ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7. Prepare the projects (PowerPoint presentations) on the following topics:
   - British Empire during the 19th century.
   - Victorian technology, inventions and innovation.
   - Victorian literature.
   - Victorian arts (painting, music, architecture).

8. Write an essay “The Victorian Age as period of changes”.
1.7.1 Britain and World War I

The danger of war with Germany had been clear from the beginning of the 20th century, and it brought France and Britain together. By 1914 the political situation in Europe was extremely dangerous. In June 1914 the Austrian Archduke Francis Ferdinand was killed in Serbia. Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia. Russia, which was an ally of Serbia, declared war on Austria-Hungary. Automatically, it meant a war with Germany. France was Russia’s ally, so it was now also at war with Germany. In August 1914 Germany’s troops invaded France through Belgium. Britain, which had been Belgium’s ally since 1838, immediately declared war on Germany. Thus, practically the whole of Europe was fighting. The First World War began.

World War I was primarily a European conflict with many facets: immense human sacrifice, stalemate trench warfare, and the use of new, devastating weapons — tanks, aircraft, machineguns, poison gas, U-boats. The war at sea was more important than the war on land, because defeat at sea would have caused Britain’s surrender. Being an island state, Britain had always depended on imported goods. Beginning with 1915, German submarines started sinking merchant ships which carried supplies to Britain. 40% of Britain’s merchant fleet was sunk during the war. There was one period in the course of the war when for six weeks the British population was on the point of starvation. Since 1916, the British population was greatly disillusioned with the war. It caused a spiritual crisis for the whole generation.

World War I proved to be the decisive break with the old world order, marking the end of absolutist monarchy in Europe. The post-war failure to deal effectively with many of the causes and results of the War would lead to the rise of Fascism in Italy, Nazism in Germany and the outbreak of World War II within a generation. The War was the catalyst for the Bolshevik Russian Revolution, which would inspire later Communist revolutions in a number of countries, and would lay the basis for the Cold War.

The peace settlement for World War I — the Treaty of Versailles (1919), severely punished Germany for its aggression by setting limitations on
the size of the German military and leveling high reparation payments. Britain absorbed some of the German colonies in Africa and received a small part of the reparation payments, but otherwise attempted to soften more severe French proposals for revenge.

1.7.2 The period between the world wars

The situation in Ireland exploded during the world war. In 1916 the Easter Rebellion caused a profound change in Britain’s relations with the Irish. While thousands of Irish participated in the British war effort, pro-independence activists saw the war as an opportunity to win total freedom. On Easter Sunday in 1916 an armed uprising took place in Dublin. The British brutally suppressed the Easter Rebellion. In 1918 Irish representatives to Parliament refused to take their seats and instead declared an independent Irish Free State. They formed their own Parliament. The British refused to recognize the rebel government, but the Irish republicans had the support of the people, especially during the following years of guerrilla warfare. In 1921, the Irish Republic was proclaimed.

Finally, both sides accepted a bill establishing the independent Irish Free State. It became an independent nation, but it remained part of the British Empire. Under this arrangement the six northern Irish counties, which were predominantly Protestant, continued to be part of Britain. Some members of the Irish Republican Army never recognized this provision and conflict continued into the early 21st century.

The worldwide economic depression of 1929 struck Britain hard. Unemployment rose to 2.5 million within a year and to 3 million by the beginning of 1933. The government put emergency measures into effect to raise income taxes on the wealthy, to reduce salaries of government workers, and to reduce unemployment benefits. Despite the effects of the Great Depression, Britain was still one of the great world powers. It was a leader in the League of Nations. Later the colonies of Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa became independent countries, although they remained part of the British Commonwealth of Nations, a loose confederation of nations and political entities with historic ties to Britain.
The period saw many outstanding achievements. In 1928, Alexander Fleming made his crucial discovery that came about accidentally in the course of research on influenza. His chance observation laid the basis for the development of penicillin therapy.

At about the same time Scottish engineer John L. Baird succeeded in transmitting a recognizable moving image. He made the first ever public demonstration of television in January 1926. Three years later, the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) began transmitting its news and variety shows using his invention. It was the first commercial use of television.

1.7.3 Britain and World War II

Yet the political situation in Europe resulted in another war. World War II was a truly global conflict with many facets: immense human suffering, and the use of the atom bomb. The conflict began on September 1, 1939 due to the German invasion of Poland, and lasted until summer of 1945, involving many of the world’s countries. About 50 million people died as a result of the war. This figure includes acts of genocide, incredibly bloody battles in Europe and the Pacific Ocean, and the atomic bombings of two cities in Japan.

Britain joined the war several days later. Britain’s new Prime Minister, Sir Winston Churchill, played a great role in keeping up the fighting spirit of the British people. But at the beginning of the war, in June 1940, Britain stood alone against the Nazis. The period of constant bombing raids against British cities, railways and factories was called the Blitz. The pilots of the British air force tried to fight off the German planes. After June 1941 the British situation changed. Germany had attacked the Soviet Union and Japan had attacked the United States of America. Germany now had to fight on two fronts: in the east and in the west. By 1943 the Soviet army was pushing the Germans out of the USSR, and Britain had driven German and Italian troops out of North Africa. In July 1943 the Allied troops landed in Italy.

Meanwhile a huge invasion of France was being prepared. A large army and thousands of ships and boats were gathered on the southern shore of Great Britain. The day of the invasion went down into history as D-Day. On the night of June 5, 1944, the Allied Army boarded ships in Great Britain. A giant fleet of 600 warships and 4,000 smaller boats
carried 176,000 Allied soldiers towards France. The soldiers were from the United States, Britain, Canada, France, Poland and many other nations. In the sky 11,000 Allied planes bombed the German positions in France. Early in the morning of June 6, the Allies landed on the French beaches. By nightfall, the Allied army was in France. The invasion of France by Allied forces was the beginning of the end for Germany. Four months later France and Belgium were freed. Then the battle for Germany began. In May 1945 Germany surrendered.

An important feature of post-war politics is the creation of the United Nations Organization in order to protect peace and democracy in the world and prevent new wars. Britain became member of its Security Council. But from the very start this new world organization faced great difficulties. The idea of the four Allies (the Soviet Union, the United States, France and Britain) working together for the recovery of Central Europe did not work. Europe became divided into the eastern part under Soviet control, and the western part under the control of Britain, France and the United States.

1.7.4 Postwar Britain

The postwar years saw the end of the British colonial empire. In India a movement for independence had been gathering momentum for decades. The British finally withdrew. The national liberation movement was led by Mohandas Gandhi who spent his life campaigning for human rights in India. The abandonment of India was a blow to British prestige and the beginning of the total disintegration of the empire. The next crisis for the empire occurred in Egypt, where British domination of the Suez Canal sustained Britain’s role as a world trader. In 1956 Egyptian leader Gamal Abdel Nasser seized the canal. Britain, with military assistance from France and Israel, attempted to retake the canal but failed. The Suez crisis saw Britain lose all of its influence in the region and raised at home the idea that Britain was no longer a great power.

Anyway, within the country private enterprise led the growth of what was being called “the affluent society”. The value of the goods that workers could buy with their wages rose by 40% during the 1950s. Two symbols of affluence — cars and televisions — soon became so common that the government undertook a program of motorway expansion. The
accession of young Queen Elizabeth II in 1952 provided a ray of light toward a brighter future, as did the extraordinary British accomplishments around the world.

In 1953 a British expedition scaled the world’s highest mountain, Mount Everest; the news of the conquest came on the young Queen’s coronation day. Another British expedition crossed Antarctica. In the early 1960s, British popular culture swept the world. For a time the United Kingdom replaced the United States as the leader in fashion and style. The hallmark of the period was the models by British designer Mary Quant. The craze of the day was the miniskirt, which had a hemline well above the knees. Quant began to mass-produce miniskirts in 1961. At the same time, popular British music groups such as the Beatles and the Rolling Stones, gained worldwide popularity.

Since the mid-1970s, Britain’s economy received a boost with the discovery and exploitation of abundant oil reserves in the North Sea. Because of this oil, Britain no longer depends on imports of foreign petroleum products and also profits from exports of petroleum products.

One of the most crucial developments in post-war Europe is the emergence of the European Union. Originally, it was the European Economic Community was established by the Treaty of Rome of 1957 and implemented on January 1, 1958. Later it was renamed as European Community. Finally, Britain joined successfully on January 1, 1973. Things are not so clear with Britain’s membership in the European Union. Up to now, Britain remains one of the most Eurosceptic countries of the EU. Despite pro-EU policies of both Blair and Brown, it is expected that most Britons will vote against the EU Constitution, if any referendum takes place.

**Questions and Assignments**

1. Give an overview of the United Kingdom in the 20th century. Consider the following items:
   - the First World War;
   - devastating weapons;
   - the Irish Republic;
   - the worldwide economic depression;
The relationship between any country and the rest of the world can reveal a great deal about that country. How do the international events of the 20th century characterize Britain?

3. Is Britain really part of Europe? What evidence do you have for your view?

4. Speak on the achievements of British popular culture in the second half of the 20th century.

5. Write an essay “On the way to the welfare state”.

TOPIC 1.8 BRITISH POLITICAL INSTITUTIONS

1.8.1 The monarchy and the Privy Council

The continuity of the English monarchy has been interrupted only by the Cromwell republic of 1649—1659 although there have been different lines of descent, such as the Stuarts, the Tudors and the Hanoverians. The Crown, as distinct from any particular monarch, is thus one of the oldest secular institutions in Britain. Succession to the throne is still hereditary, but only for Protestants in the direct line of descent.

The monarch has a number of roles, and serves formally as head of state, head of the executive, head of the judiciary, head of the legislature, commander-in-chief of the armed forces, and supreme governor of the Church of England. It follows that all ministers and officials of the central government are the monarch’s servants, and judges, military officers, peers, and bishops of the Church of England swear allegiance to the Crown. In holding these and other positions, the monarch is said to personify the British state.
In spite of these roles, there are difficulties in defining the precise powers of the monarch, who is supposed to reign but not rule. The monarch is also expected to be politically neutral, and should not be seen to be making political decisions. The monarch cannot make laws, impose taxes, spend public money or act unilaterally. In this sense, contemporary Britain is governed by Her Majesty’s Government in the name of the Queen.

Nevertheless, the monarch still performs some important executive and legislative duties, which are essential to the smooth running of government. These include the summoning, opening, proroguing (or adjourning), and dissolving of Parliament; giving the Royal Assent (or signature) to bills which have been passed by both Houses of Parliament; appointing government ministers and other public figures; granting honours; holding audiences with the Prime Ministers; convening meetings of the Privy Council; giving pardons to some convicted criminals; and fulfilling international duties as head of state. In practice, most of these functions are performed by the monarch on the advice of the Prime Minister or other ministers.

But central power still possessed by the monarch is the choice and appointment of the Prime Minister. Normally and by convention, this person would be the leader of the political party which has a majority in the House of Commons. However, if there is no clear majority or if the political situation is unclear, the monarch could in theory make a free choice. In practice, it appears that advice would be given by the monarch’s advisers and leading politicians in order to present a suitable candidate who would be generally acceptable.

The monarchy is also said to reflect family values, and has a certain glamour (some would say soap-opera quality) about it, which is attractive to many people. The British public shows considerable affection for the royal family beyond its representative role. Public opinion polls from time to time demonstrate majority support for the institution of monarchy as against a republican alternative. But the polls also suggest that the monarchy should adapt more to changes in society; that less public money should be spent on it; and that its income should be subject to income tax.

The Privy Council developed from a small group of royal advisers at court into the chief source of executive authority. But its powerful position was weakened in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. Today its main role is to advise the monarch on a range of matters, like the
resolution of constitutional issues and the approval of Orders in Council, such as the granting of Royal Charters to public bodies. Its members can be appointed to advisory and problem-solving committees and, because of its international membership and continuing constitutional character, it can be influential.

1.8.2 Parliament

Parliament is the supreme legislative authority in Britain and, since it is not controlled by a written constitution, it has legal sovereignty in virtually all matters, subject only to some European Community decisions. This means that it can create, abolish or amend laws for all or any part(s) of Britain on any topic. The main functions of Parliament today are to pass laws; to vote on financial bills so that government can carry on its legitimate business; to examine government policies and administration; and to scrutinize European Community legislation. In pursuing these powers, Parliament is supposed to legislate according to the rule of law, precedent and tradition. Politicians are generally sensitive to these conventions and to public opinion.

Parliament consists of the House of Lords, the House of Commons and formally the monarch. It assembles as a unified body only on ceremonial occasions, such as the State Opening of Parliament by the monarch in the House of Lords. A Parliament has a maximum duration of five years, but it is often dissolved and a general election called before the end of this term. The maximum has sometimes been prolonged by special parliamentary legislation on occasions of national emergency like the two World Wars.

The contemporary House of Lords consists of the Lords Temporal and the Lords Spiritual. The Lords Spiritual are the Archbishops of York and Canterbury, together with twenty-four senior bishops of the Church of England. The Lords Temporal consist of (1) hereditary peers and peeresses who have kept their titles; (2) life peers and peeresses, who have usually been created by political parties; and (3) the Lords of Appeal (Law Lords), who become life peers on their judicial appointments.

There are some 1,200 members of the House of Lords, but the active daily attendance varies from a handful to a few hundred. Peers receive no salary for their parliamentary work. The House is presided over by the Lord
Chancellor, who is a political appointee of the sitting government, who sits on the Woolsack (or stuffed woollen sofa) as Speaker (Chairman) of the House, and who controls the procedure and meetings of the House.

The House of Commons consists of Members of Parliament (MPs) who are elected by the adult suffrage of the British people, and who are said to represent the citizen in Parliament. In practice, this means that a government can be elected with a minority of the popular vote and is able to carry out its policies (the mandate theory) because it has achieved a majority of the seats in the House of Commons. The Commons has 650 MPs, of whom fewer than 10% are women. There are 523 parliamentary seats for England, 38 for Wales, 72 for Scotland and 17 for Northern Ireland.

Traditional constitutional theory has suggested that Parliament is supposed to control the government or the executive. This might have been true to some degree in the past. But the contemporary reality seems to be that it is government that governs in Britain today. The opposition parties can only oppose in Parliament in the hope of persuading the electorate to dismiss the sitting government at the next general election.

Britain is divided for electoral purposes into constituencies, or geographical areas of the country, usually containing about 60,000 voters, each of which returns one elected MP to the House of Commons.

1.8.3 The party political system

The electoral system depends to a large extent upon the party political system, which has existed since the seventeenth century.

The great majority of the MPs in the House of Commons belong to either the Conservative or the Labour Party, which are the largest political parties. This division emphasizes the continuation of the traditional two-party system in British politics, in which power has alternated between two major parties.

The Labour Party has traditionally gathered its support from the trade unions, the working class and some middle-class backing. Its electoral strongholds have always been in south Wales, Scotland, and the Midland and northern English industrial cities. In recent years the Labour Party has embarked on wide-ranging reviews of its policies in order to broaden its appeal, take account of changing economic and social conditions, and remain a major force in British politics.
The Conservative Party has traditionally regarded itself as a national party, which appeals to people across the class barriers. Although it has often criticized what it sees as the dogmatic and ideological fervour of the Labour Party, the Conservative Party has also become more radical in recent years, and has departed from what used to be considered as the consensus view of British politics. The party’s support comes mainly from business interests and the middle and upper classes, but a sizeable percentage of skilled and unskilled workers, and women have always voted Conservative. The party’s strongholds tend to be in southern England, with scattered support elsewhere in the country, although it has suffered serious setbacks in Scotland.

Smaller political parties also have some representation in the House of Commons. Among these have been the Liberals and Social Democrats; the Scottish National Party; Plaid Cymru (the Welsh National Party); the Protestant Northern Irish parties of the Official Unionists, the Democratic Unionists and the Ulster Popular Unionists; the Social Democratic and Labour Party (moderate Roman Catholic Northern Irish party); and Sinn Fein (Republican Northern Irish party). Other small parties such as the Greens and Communist Party, as well as publicity-seeking fringe groups, may also contest a general election. But a party which does not achieve a certain number of votes in the election loses its deposit — the sum paid when a party registers to fight an election.

1.8.4 The government

The British government normally consists of over a hundred ministers and other officials chosen from both Houses of Parliament, who are appointed by the monarch on the advice of the Prime Minister. They belong to the party which forms the majority in the Commons, and are collectively responsible for the administration of national affairs. The government can vary considerably in the number of ministers and departments set up by the Prime Minister.

The Prime Minister, who is appointed by the monarch and is normally the leader of the majority party in the Commons, possesses a great deal of patronage in choosing ministers and deciding on the composition of the government. The Prime Minister’s power stems from majority support in Parliament; from the authority to choose and dismiss minister; from the leadership of the party in the country; and from
a control over policy-making. The Prime Minister usually sits in the Commons, as do most of the ministers, where they may all be questioned and held accountable for government actions and decisions. The Prime Minister has historically been the connection between the monarch and parliamentary government. This convention continues today in the weekly audience with the monarch, at which the policies and business of the government are discussed.

The Cabinet is normally composed of up to twenty senior ministers from the government, who are chosen and presided over by the Prime Minister. Examples are the Chancellor of the Exchequer (Finance Minister), the Foreign Secretary, the Home Secretary, the Minister of Defence, the Secretary of State for Education and Science, and the Secretary of State for Trade and Industry. The Cabinet structure originated historically in meetings that the monarch had with leading ministers in a small royal Cabinet, outside the framework of the Privy Council. As the monarch gradually ceased to play a part in active politics because of the growth of parliamentary government and party politics, the Royal Cabinet developed more authority and independence, and became a parliamentary body. The Prime Minister is responsible for Cabinet agendas and for the control of Cabinet proceedings.

Ministerial responsibility is still an important constitutional concept, although some doubt its applicability today. Collective responsibility is that which all ministers, including those outside the Cabinet, share for government actions and policy. It means that Cabinet and other ministers should be seen to act as one. All must support a government decision in public, even though some may oppose it during the private deliberations. If a minister cannot do this, he or she may feel obliged to resign.

In addition to collective responsibility, a minister also has an individual responsibility for the work of the relevant government department. This means that the minister is answerable for any mistakes, wrongdoing or bad administration which occur.

Government departments (or ministries) are the chief instruments by which central government implements government policy. Examples of government departments are the Foreign Office, the Ministry of Defence, the Home Office, the Department of Education and Science, and the Treasury (of which the Chancellor of the Exchequer is head). Most of these central departments are in London and are collectively known as Whitehall.
The government departments are staffed by the Civil Service, which consists of career administrators. Civil servants are employed by central government in London and throughout the country, and are involved in a wide range of government activities.

The system of local government is very similar to the system of national government. There are elected representatives, called councillors (the equivalent of MPs). They meet in a council chamber in the Town Hall or Country Hall (the equivalent of Parliament), where they make policy which is implemented by local government officers (the equivalent of civil servants).

Most British people have far more direct dealings with local government than they do with national government. Local councils traditionally manage nearly all public services.

The modern trend has been towards greater and greater control by central government. This is not just a matter of controlling the way local government raises money. There are now more laws governing the way councils can conduct their affairs. On top of this, schools and hospitals can now ‘opt out’ of local-government control.

Questions and Assignments

1. Why doesn’t Britain have a written constitution? Does it need one?
2. What are the powers of the monarch?
3. Does Britain have an adequate parliamentary electoral system? Explain the main difference between the Conservative and Labour Parties.
5. Which of the following sentences do you think best illustrates the basic problems of the British foreign policy?
   A. Britain still cannot abandon a self-image of imperial GREATNESS.
   B. Britain has always been late in scaling down its foreign policy commitments in line with its real political and economic power.
   C. Britain’s fundamental problem is whether to back the European Union fully or to pursue a wider role as a junior partner of the USA.
6. What broad changes (national and foreign policies) would you propose if you were Prime Minister of the UK?

7. Write an essay “The role of Parliament in making the British state system”.

TOPIC 1.9 EDUCATION AND SOCIAL LIFE IN THE UK

1.9.1 Primary and secondary education

Primary education is given to children between 5 and 11 years of age. A primary school is subdivided into infant schools for children aged 5 to 7 and junior schools for children aged 7 to 11. In small country places both the infant department and the junior department may be combined under the roof of one school. In infant school (or classes) children are encouraged to read, to write in their own words, to understand and make use of numbers. Subject teaching is rare. At the age of 7 children go to the junior school where the teaching becomes more formal. About 40—50 minutes every day are spent on arithmetic. Almost an hour a week is given to work in history, geography, nature study and music. Pride of place is given to English, which may occupy from 7 to 10 hours a week.

Secondary education embraces children from 11 years of age to 16 years of age. The majority of educational establishments are comprehensive schools. The main advantages of the comprehensive schools are that these schools are open to children of all types of ability from the age of 11; they are large schools which give a much wider range of subjects than smaller schools, so that teenagers can choose a course of studies according to their individual inclinations and abilities.

According to the National Curriculum, children at the age of 7, 11, 14 and 16 are tested. Until the year of testing schools are allowed to choose the subjects to teach and the ways of teaching those subjects. Besides, schoolchildren are given the opportunity to choose the subjects to learn. The English School Syllabus is divided into Art (or Humanities) and Sciences. Art pupils study English Language and Literature, History, Foreign languages, Music, Art, Drama. Science pupils study Chemistry, Physics, Mathematics (Maths), Economics, Technical Drawing, Biology,
Geography. Besides, secondary school students must do general education subjects like Physical Education (PE). The usual grading system in secondary school is alphabetical: A — excellent/outstanding; B — above average; C — average; D — below average; E — failing.

There is a wide network of further education institutions in Britain. They give students the chance to increase their theoretical background and professional training. Students may get further education after they have passed their General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) or General National Vocational Qualification (GNVQ) exams taken at the age of 16. Further education includes sixth-form colleges and classes where students work for “A” (Advanced) level exams necessary to enter a university. It also includes colleges of further education which provide a theoretical background and professional qualification training in nursing, accountancy, management, art, music, etc.

1.9.2 Tertiary education

Britain has more than 90 universities. British universities can be divided into several categories. The foremost universities are the University of Oxford and the University of Cambridge, both founded in the Middle Ages. Scotland has institutions at Edinburgh, Glasgow, and St. Andrews. Another type of university is the so-called redbrick universities — old and solid schools built in the 19th century when bricks were the standard building material. The large number of ultramodern universities that sprouted up in the last half of the 20th century are often called cement block and plate glass universities. London has its own great schools, the enormous University of London and its world-famous college, the London School of Economics.

Higher education can also be obtained through the Open University, founded in 1969, which offers extension courses taught through correspondence, television and radio programs, and videocassettes. It also sponsors local study centers and residential summer schools. The purpose of the Open University is to reach people who may not ordinarily be qualified for university study. In order to get higher education school leavers may hand in applications to different universities. The final decision is taken by Universities and Colleges Admission Service (UCAS) which, in accordance with the student’s results of the “A” level
exams, offers a place to this or that university. The better results of the exams are the better university or college place can be offered.

After 3 years of studies at the university a student may get a first degree of Bachelor of Arts (BA) or Bachelor of Science (BSc). The first degree is usually an honors degree. The letters BA or BSc are often added after the graduates’ names. However, the title of a degree does not necessarily reflect the field in which the student has studied. Those graduates who want to continue their studies at the university may work for a master’s degree or a doctorate. To get a master’s degree a student needs one more year of study. Doctorate is the highest degree in Britain’s universities. The letters Dr before a person’s name indicate that he or she has the title of “Doctor”, the highest title at the university — PhD (Doctor of Philosophy).

University teaching combines lectures, practical classes (in scientific subjects) and small group teaching in either seminars (discussion groups) and tutorials or supervisions (run by tutors or supervisors). At most universities in Britain the academic year is divided into three terms. Examinations are not necessarily taken annually. University education may be not only full-time but also part-time. Some people want to get a degree but they need only evening or correspondence courses.

1.9.3 A social profile

In the past, Britain used to be a class society. Yet some class distinctions have become blurred in Britain. Today only a small number of people are considered upper class, and their former influence in conservative politics has been largely taken over by wealthy people in the middle class. Liberal and left-wing politics have middle-class leadership as well. The British economy has created many semiprofessional and technical jobs, so it is no longer easy to tell which jobs are middle class and which are working class. Moreover, growing national affluence has brought greater social mobility between the working class and the middle class. Although prosperity may move working-class into the middle class, no amount of wealth will guarantee upper-class status, which is determined by land and family.

The increasingly widespread distribution of capital has also blurred class lines, as more money in the form of stocks, bonds, property, and
bank accounts is in more hands. Many middle-class employees and workers have become owners of capital, particularly in the form of pension plans. There is less inequality in wealth, due to the spread of home ownership, and government programs have been created to help equalize access to health services and education.

There have been many changes in traditional values as well. Family structure has changed. Married couples have an average of two children, a figure that has not changed since World War II. However, marriage rates fell in the 1980s, and there has been a significant shift from formal marriage to stable cohabitation. In the mid-1990s one-third of births were to parents who were not formally married. As the percentage of women in Britain’s workforce has risen, women have struggled for equal pay for equal work, a goal as yet unachieved. The state passed an Equal Pay Act that has been aggressively applied to civil service, teaching, and local government jobs. The Sex Discrimination Act made discrimination unlawful between men and women in employment, education, training, housing, facilities, and services. Over 100 women were elected to the House of Commons out of a total 659 members.

The United Kingdom is generally a prosperous, well-educated, and tolerant society, and ethnic differences have sparked relatively little violence and hostility. Even so, black and Asian populations tend to cluster in certain urban neighborhoods, where economic and social disadvantages have become pronounced. Integration of these diverse ethnic groups into the workforce, as well as socialization into the broader society, including intermarriage, has been remarkably smooth. Percentages of employment for various ethnic minorities and whites are generally similar. Many individuals from ethnic minorities hold managerial and professional positions, and several sit in Parliament.

1.9.4 Social issues

Perhaps the worst feature of the current class situation in Britain is the existence of a permanent underclass. These people are on the dole, that is, on welfare, permanently. They subsist in poor surroundings with little hope that they or their children, who usually drop out of school, will break out of the cycle of poverty. Another social problem, somewhat related to this underclass, has been the rise in crime and violence. Vandalism and
rowdiness by youths are problems in British society, and the brutality of British football (soccer) fans has gained international notoriety. The degree to which racism is a problem in Britain is a source of debate. Some say it is a hidden tradition and others believe that decency and fair play prevail.

Most British people attribute their origins to the early invaders, calling themselves English, Scottish, Irish, Welsh, or Ulsterites. The remaining shares of the population are minorities who arrived, for the most part, in the decades following the end of World War II. These minorities — Chinese, Asian Indians, Pakistanis, Africans, and Caribbean people of African ancestry — came to Britain in substantial numbers after 1945. Immigration from the South Asian subcontinent (India and Pakistan) stabilized in the 1990s, but immigration from African countries continued to rise. These newer ethnic groups tend to live in the more urban and industrial areas of England, especially in London, Birmingham, and Leeds. It is estimated that 60% of black Britons live in the London area, along with 41% of the Asian Indian population.

British houses are made with concrete blocks or concrete-like building materials because the dampness of the climate causes wood to rot. In general, British people are much more tolerant of the damp chill and less tolerant of heat over 26°C (80°F). Clothes reflect the climate, and woolen goods, particularly tweeds, are famous products. British cooking has a reputation for overcooked vegetables and unhealthy fried foods. This situation has improved considerably in recent years, and foreign foods, particularly those from southern Europe and Asia, have become popular.

The British tend to socialize by joining clubs and hobby groups. The local public house, or pub, serves alcoholic beverages and is an important gathering place, particularly for the working class. Although British society is overwhelmingly urban and suburban, links with its agricultural past are reflected in the popularity of gardening. Politeness is a hallmark of British society, and shouting is regarded as rude. People are often reserved and do not want to show emotion in public, although this appears to be changing. Sports are important, and an estimated 29 million people participate in a variety of sports. Many more are spectators of professional sports. Fishing is popular, but the few people who take up hunting come under considerable criticism for doing so. Reading, music, culture, and the arts are pursued zealously by countless millions.
1.9.5 Youth life

Youth and youth movement are important factors in the life of Britain. Hundreds of voluntary youth groups and organizations play an active role in the moral and physical nurture of young people in Britain. There are thousands of Youth Clubs which are part of a highly organized national network. These can provide good all-round facilities for games, music, project development and other activities and encourage young people to take part in dramatic productions, residential visits, community work or environmental projects.

The Scout Association, founded in Britain by Lord Robert Baden-Powell about a century ago (1908), is still popular. Girls were admitted to the Scouts for the first time in 1990. Boys and girls scouts organize outdoor activities such as camping and social responsibility. Scouts wear uniforms. Their motto is “Be prepared”. Young Farmers’ Clubs embrace thousands of members in country areas. The clubs visit farms and research stations and enjoy social meetings as well. Most of them are directly involved in community activities such as programs to help in the protection of the local environment. Youth organization Greenpeace deals with most urgent ecological problems of today’s world. It protests against nuclear weapon tests, water and soil pollution, etc. Religious organizations are the largest voluntary sector provider of accommodation training for young people, particularly those who are homeless, unemployed or otherwise disadvantaged.

The “youthful” image of Britain was consolidated in 1994 when the Labour Party elected Tony Blair, a 41-year-old lawyer, as its leader. Blair became the youngest person ever to lead the Labour Party, and he secured landslide victories for his party in the 1997 and 2001 general elections. He insisted that his party abandoned its nearly century-old commitment to creating a socialist state. Blair benefited immediately from a series of scandals involving Conservative ministers and Members of Parliament, as well as the public spectacle surrounding Prince Charles and Princess Diana.

In the wake of the September 11 attacks on the United States in 2001, Blair proclaimed that the United Kingdom would stand “shoulder to shoulder” with the United States in the effort to root out global terrorism. More than 100 British citizens were among the thousands of people who died in the attacks. Blair began an intensive round of diplomatic negotiations that took him to European capitals and to a host
of Muslim countries to build international support for action against the terrorists. The United Kingdom sent British forces to participate in the assault on Afghanistan’s Taliban regime, which was accused of harboring terrorists. Blair also offered to contribute British military forces to the attack on Iraq. In March 2003 British forces joined the US-led invasion of Iraq, despite a failure to secure a UN resolution explicitly sanctioning the action.

1.9.6 Communications and travel

Communication systems were first established by commercial concerns and merchants who needed to exchange information about trade routes and goods. The ruling aristocracy used trusted messengers to carry confidential or sensitive information from capital to capital or kingdom to kingdom, but they were typically soldiers or servants. Over time, these arrangements evolved into government-operated systems for any citizen or subject to post messages to any other, financed by charging users a tax or fee for postage (verified by postage stamps). In England, the Post Office was founded in 1635 and is noted in history for issuing the famous Penny Black, the world’s first adhesive stamp, in 1840.

British fleet has always played an important role in the country’s development. It was during the reign of Queen Elizabeth I that support for naval exploration increased dramatically. In 1580 Sir Francis Drake became the first Englishman to sail around the world. Overseas commercial and trade interests were also established in the form of the English East India Company in 1600. English colonization in the Americas began with the attempted settlement of Roanoke Island off the North American coast in 1585 by Sir Walter Raleigh. This settlement did not survive. Later, British ships began to carry settlers to every part of the world. British fleet consolidated Britain’s economic and military power in later centuries.

Historically, railroads played a very important role in the history of the country. The Victorian era was also known as the Railway Age. The world’s first public railway was the Stockton and Darlington, which opened in 1825. It was built by George Stephenson. One of the latest large-scale construction projects is the Channel Tunnel that links England with France and runs underground beneath the relatively shallow English
Channel. It was finished in 1994 and cost more than $16 billion to complete, twice its estimated budget. It has enormous symbolic importance as an unbroken link between Britain and the Continent.

The automobile is a chief means of transportation in the modern world. It is interesting to know that it was English physicist Sir Isaac Newton who, among other things, proposed a steam carriage. In 1794, Robert Street filed a patent that summarized how an internal-combustion engine might work. The first modern cars appeared in Germany, and the real revolution in car-making took place in the USA in the early 20th century.

Along with other industries, the airlines were nationalized after World War II, but they were privatized in the late 1980s. British Airways is one of the world’s leading airlines and operates the world’s largest network of international scheduled services. London’s main airports, Heathrow and Gatwick, are among the world’s busiest centers for international travel. There are another 146 licensed civil airfields in Britain.

Questions and Assignments

1. Name three levels of school at which most children receive education from the age of 5 to 16. Is education free for all in Britain?
2. Compare what you believe to be the strengths and weaknesses of Britain’s system of education with the system in your own country.
3. Does it make any sense to talk of a “British” system of schooling?
4. What is the social portrait of the UK (in terms of household and family structures, religion, health, employment and transport)?
5. Prepare the projects (power point presentations) on the following topics:
   - The United Kingdom as a constitutional monarchy.
   - The United Kingdom as the part of the European Union.
   - Best schools and universities of the UK.
   - A typical British family.
6. Write an essay “The successes and failures of the British educational system”.

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TOPIC 1.10 THE MASS MEDIA IN THE UK

1.10.1 British newspapers

Mass media is a term used to denote, as a class, that section of the media specifically conceived and designed to reach a very large audience. It was coined in the 1920s (with the advent of nationwide radio networks, mass-circulation newspapers and magazines), although mass media was present centuries before the term became common. Media refers to organize means of dissemination of fact, opinion, entertainment, and other information, such as newspapers, magazines, radio, banners, billboards, films, TV, the World Wide Web, CDs, DVDs, videocassettes, etc.

Newspapers developed from around 1605, with the first example in English in 1620; but they took until the nineteenth century to reach a mass-audience directly. Regular newspaper publication dates from the 1650s. During the Civil War there were regular news-sheets and then news books carrying general information along with propaganda. Following the Restoration there arose a number of publications including the London Gazette (first published on November 16, 1665), the first official newspaper of the Crown. In 1788, there came The Times. This was the most significant newspaper of the first half of the 19th century, but from around 1860 there were a number of more strongly competitive titles, each differentiated by its political biases and interests.

The first recognizably modern papers — depending on advertising and newspaper sales for revenue and providing a mixture of political, economic, and social news and commentary — emerged in Britain in the mid-18th century. As the first country to undergo the Industrial Revolution, Britain was able to provide the complex system of distribution networks, large urban markets, and advertisers necessary to make newspapers profitable enterprises.

During the 19th century, the British model became far more than the technical process of printing, financing, and distributing newspapers; it evolved into a political presence. The Times of London set the standard for a global press. It defined the principle of freedom of the press — the right to criticize the government and to campaign vigorously for its own political views.
Britain has two kinds of national newspaper — the quality papers and the tabloids. The qualities usually deal with home and overseas news, with detailed and extensive coverage of sports and cultural events. The tabloids are smaller in size. They offer news for the less interested in daily news reports. They are characterized by large headlines, carry a lot of big photographs, and concentrate on the personal aspects of news, with reports of the recent sensational and juicy bits of events.

1.10.2 Radio and television

The story of radio begins in the development of an earlier medium, the telegraph. It was patented simultaneously in 1837 in the United States by Samuel F. B. Morse and in Britain by Sir Charles Wheatstone and Sir William Fothergill Cooke. Later, scientists worked to devise a system that could overcome the limitations of the telegraph wire. The Italian inventor Marconi demonstrated that an electronic signal could be cast broadly (broadcast) through space so that receivers at random points could capture it. The invention was called a radiotelegraph (shortened to radio). Marconi found supporters for his research in Britain and founded the British Marconi Company to develop and market his invention for military and industrial uses. Within five years a wireless signal had been transmitted across the Atlantic Ocean from England to Newfoundland, Canada. For his work in wireless telegraphy, Marconi was awarded the Nobel Prize in physics in 1909.

Radio is very popular among the British. Many people rely on the radio to learn the latest news. The main television and radio broadcasting organization in Britain is the British Broadcasting Corporation (the BBC) set up in 1922. John Reith, a Scottish engineer, was appointed the first general manager and became the architect of “public service broadcasting”, in which the profit motive plays no part. Independence from political and business control, provision for minorities, impartiality, and respect for broadcasting as a serious cultural force became its hallmarks. The BBC runs five radio stations, provides television information service in Britain, operating two national television channels. The BBC World Service broadcasts in English and about forty other languages of the world. Britain has one of the world’s largest and most technologically advanced telecommunications systems.
Television today is a most important mass medium. The principles on which television is based were discovered in the course of basic research. The Scottish scientist James Maxwell predicted the existence of the electromagnetic waves that make it possible to transmit ordinary television broadcasts. Some of the earliest work on television began in the 1880s, when a German engineer designed the first true television mechanism. His mechanical scanner was used in England by the inventor John L. Baird. The first television picture was shown on October 2, 1925. Baird transmitted a picture of a human face — the face of a fifteen-year-old boy.

In time, the process of watching images on a television screen made people interested in either producing their own images or watching programming at their leisure. Affordable videocassette recorders were introduced and in the 1980s became almost as common as television sets. During the late 1990s the digital video disc player had the most successful product launch in consumer electronics history. The DVD player also offered the digital surround-sound quality experienced in a state-of-the-art movie theater. Another development in this sphere is the high-definition television (HDTV) system.

1.10.3 The era of computers

The history of the computer is longer than most people think. An early mechanical computer called the Difference Engine was designed by British mathematician and scientist Charles Babbage in the 1830s. Babbage also made plans for another machine, the Analytical Engine, considered the mechanical precursor of the modern computer. Augusta Ada Byron, the daughter of the famous poet Lord Byron and one of only a few woman mathematicians of her time, was a personal friend and student of Babbage. She prepared extensive notes concerning Babbage’s ideas and the Analytical Engine. Her conceptual programs for the machine led to the naming of a programming language (Ada) in her honor.

One hundred years later, British mathematician Alan Turing proposed the idea of a machine that could process equations without human direction. The machine (now known as a Turing machine) resembled an automatic
A typewriter that used symbols for math and logic instead of letters. Turing’s machine was the theoretical precursor to the modern digital computer.

However, the first personal computer appeared only in 1975. Graphical user interfaces were first designed by the Xerox Corporation, and later used successfully by Apple Computer, Inc. Today the development of sophisticated operating systems such as Windows enables computer users to run programs and manipulate data in ways that were unimaginable in the mid-20th century.

Computers will become more advanced and they will also become easier to use. Improved speech recognition will make the operation of a computer easier. Virtual reality, the technology of interacting with a computer using all of the human senses, will also contribute to better human and computer interfaces. Standards for virtual-reality program languages — for example, Virtual Reality Modeling language (VRML) — are currently in use or are being developed for the World Wide Web.

The WWW was developed by British physicist and computer scientist Timothy Berners-Lee as a project within the European Organization for Nuclear Research (CERN) in Geneva, Switzerland.

1.10.4 Top 10 Britons of all time

British history is particularly rich in great names — the nation is proud of its many outstanding people who contributed to both world civilization and culture. Yet some people are more famous, some people less. It makes sense to resort to the opinions of the members of British public for advice on who’s who in British history. An opinion poll involving some 30,000 people was carried in the UK at the turn of the present century. The aim was to list 100 top Britons of all time. The results of the poll published in the Internet are of peculiar interest for us, experts in British studies.

It makes no less sense to remember some of the names which appear in the other half of the top 100 list. For instance, these are King Arthur (51), Florence Nightingale (52), Captain Robert Falcon Scott (54), Sir Alexander Graham Bell (57), Freddie Mercury (58), George Stephenson (68), Sir Charles Chaplin (66), Tony Blair (67), William Caxton (68), Edward Jenner (78), Geoffrey Chaucer (81), James Watt (84), James
Clerk Maxwell (91), John R. R. Tolkien (92), David Livingstone (98), Professor Tim Berners-Lee (99), Marie Stopes (100). If you have a good story to tell about most of the people mentioned above, then you do know a thing or two (or even three) about British history and culture.

1.10.5 Sightseeing in the United Kingdom

For many decades Britain has remained a tourist Mecca for people around the world. And the attractions Britain suggests have been diverse. Stonehenge is an archaeological site located about 8 miles (13 km) northwest of Salisbury, in Wiltshire, England. Built in prehistoric times around 3100 BC, it is a monumental circular setting of large standing stones surrounded by an earthwork. The precise purposes of Stonehenge still remain a mystery. This most remarkable monument of Britain’s prehistory is considered to be the centre of religious, political and economic power of the early country’s inhabitants.

One of the major tourist attractions, Melrose Abbey, is considered one of Scotland’s most beautiful sights. Its fascinating history provides the visitor with a sense of romance. The Abbey was founded by King David I around 1136. The church was eventually burned by the English and the place got almost deserted in 1385. The former splendour was rebuilt over a period of about 100 years, and one person instrumental in the reconstruction was King Robert the Bruce. When Bruce was dying he requested that his heart be taken into battle, as he was unable to go on crusade. His wish was granted and his heart now lies in an unopened lead casket in Melrose Abbey. Throughout its working life Melrose Abbey was a favourite of the royalty. Today, Melrose Abbey, under the care of Historic Scotland, comprises the almost complete ruins of the Abbey Church.

Wales is famous for its spectacular mountain scenery and wonderfully preserved medieval castles. The Northern part of Wales is the most scenic, containing the Snowdonia National Park. The park contains over 800 square miles of mountains, forests, lakes and waterfalls. The highest mountain in England and Wales, Snowdon, lies in the park, although Snowdon is only about 3,500 feet high and one can easily walk to the summit.

The Giant’s Causeway is a World Heritage site, National Nature Reserve and Northern Ireland’s premier tourist attraction. The sight presents a great lot of basalt columns on the edge of the Antrim plateau.
some 25 miles (40 km) northeast of Londonderry. There are approximately 40,000 of these stone pillars, each typically with five to seven irregular sides, jutting out of the cliff faces as if they were steps creeping into the sea. Formed 50 to 60 million years ago, the Giant’s Causeway resulted from successive flows of lava inching toward the coast and cooling when they contacted the sea. The pressure between the columns sculpted them into polygonal shapes that vary from 38 to 51 cm in diameter and measure up to 25 m in height. First documented in 1693, the formation has been intensively studied by geologists. The site is protected not only for its beauty but also because its cliffs, seashores, marshes, and grasslands are home to some 50 species of birds, as well as to more than 200 species of plants. Humans settled around the Giant’s Causeway in the 19th century, but now the site is uninhabited.

Questions and Assignments

1. What are the basic characteristics of British press? Radio? TV?
2. Make comparisons between the British media and media in your own country.
3. How would you define a famous person?
4. The table below presents the first 10 out of 100 top British names. The left column of the table below contains the alphabetical list. Fill in the other two columns – your list and group list. Work individually first, then do the same in small groups. Compare it with the original list (Supplement B).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Alphabetical list</th>
<th>Your priority list</th>
<th>Group priority list</th>
<th>The original list</th>
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<tr>
<td>Brunel</td>
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<td>Nelson</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
5. Prepare the projects (power point presentations) on the following topics:
   - The outstanding British kings and politicians.
   - The outstanding British scientists and inventors.
   - The outstanding British writers and artists.
   - UK’s top 10 landmarks.

6. Write an essay “Places of the UK I’d like to visit”.

End of the table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Alphabetical list</th>
<th>Your priority list</th>
<th>Group priority list</th>
<th>The original list</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Newton</td>
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<td>Shakespeare</td>
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<td>Cromwell</td>
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</table>
2.1.1 General description: what comes to mind first?

The United States of America, commonly called the United States or simply America (which is not correct, of course, but nobody cares), lies in the central part of the North American continent with the Atlantic Ocean to the East, the Pacific to the West, Canada to the North, and Mexico and the Gulf of Mexico to the South. The United States covers an area of 9.6 million sq. km. It has a population of about 300 million people. The states form a federation, each state being different from another in size and population. The largest states in area are Alaska, Texas, and California. The smallest state is Rhode Island. The state with the largest population is California followed by Texas, and New York. Only 480,907 people live on the plateaus and rugged mountains of Wyoming, the least populous state.

The scenery of the United States is as varied as the size of its states. There are great rivers, the longest being the Mississippi with its west tributary the Missouri. World-famous is the region of the Great Lakes, situated in the north-east of the United States bordering Canada. It is a system of five great lakes (Lake Superior, Lake Michigan, Lake Huron, Lake Erie and Lake Ontario) joined together by natural channels. The Niagara Falls, great rapids situated on the short Niagara River joining Lakes Erie and Ontario, are famous all over the world.

The country was one of the first to establish national parks on a large scale. A number of picturesque areas have become national parks such as Yellowstone National Park, Mesa Verde National Park, Rocky Mountains National Park in the Rocky Mountains area; Yosemite National Park on the west slope of the Sierra Nevada Mountains; Grand Canyon National Park etc. There is a place that associates with US
leadership, Mount Rushmore. Architect Borglum covered the face of Mount Rushmore with the heads of Washington, Jefferson, Lincoln and Theodore Roosevelt.

American lifestyle is associated with large modern cities. The most well-known of these are New York, Washington, D. C., Boston, Philadelphia, Detroit, Chicago, Miami, New Orleans, San Francisco, Los Angeles, Seattle and a number of others. The capital Washington, D. C. has a lot of symbols of the country such as the Capitol, the Lincoln Memorial, the Washington Memorial, the White House and many others. Another symbol of the USA is the Statue of Liberty located on an island in New York Harbor.

Still, a great proportion of the country consists of open land dotted with farm-houses and small towns. In some regions small communities are still provincial. The usual town of average size, in any part of the United States, has its “main street”, with the same types of stores selling the same products. Every town has the same type of drug-store and supermarket. “One-storied” America still exists.

2.1.2 Geography and a bit of economy

The United States of America stretches from Atlantic Ocean across North America and far into the Pacific.

Because of such a huge size of the country the climate differs from one part of the country to another. The coldest climate is in the northern part, where there is heavy snow in winter and the temperature may go down to 40 degrees below zero. The south has a subtropical climate, with temperature as high as 49 degrees in summer.

The continental part of the USA consists of the highland regions and two lowland regions. The highland regions are the Appalachian Mountains in the east and the Cordillera in the west. Between the Cordillera and the Appalachian mountains are the central lowlands which are called the prairie, and eastern lowlands called the Mississippi valley. There are many mountains especially in the west and southwest. The Rocky mountains extend all the way from New Mexico to Alaska.

Many rivers cross the country. The most important are the Mississippi, Missouri, Colorado, Sacramento. The main lakes in the USA are the Great Lakes in the north. The nation’s natural advantages
and resources are probably greater than those of any other area of equal size. The land is as varied as it huge. There are plains and mountains, grasslands and forests, sandy soil, clay and rich, dark loams.

The mineral resources vary from precious gold and rare uranium to common lead and zinc. Coal, oil, iron, copper and other minerals are abundant. They form basis of modern industry.

The territory of the United States is historically divided into eight regions: New England; the Mid-Atlantic region; the South; the Midwest; the Southwest; the Rocky Mountain region; the Pacific Northwest and Alaska; California and Hawaii.

New England is highly industrial, but it also has many fields, woods and small towns. New England is the part of the United States that is most like “old” England. It includes six states: Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut. The main city of this region is Boston.

The Mid-Atlantic region plays an important role in the United States. Its cities include Washington, D. C., the nation’s capital, and New York City, the nation’s financial centre, and Philadelphia. The Mid-Atlantic region is densely populated. It includes six states: New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland and West Virginia.

Economically, historically and culturally, the South is a distinct region. With its warm climate and rich soil, it developed an economy based on cotton export. The South includes eleven states: Kentucky, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Arkansas, Louisiana, Mississippi, Alabama, Georgia and Florida. The main cities of the region are Miami and New Orleans.

The Midwest is a large, economically important region. It contains major industrial cities and much farmland. Geographically, the Midwest can be subdivided into three smaller regions: the Great Lakes area with many lakes, hills and forests; the prairie area south of it, which is flat and has good soil for farming; the Great Plains area to the west, much drier than the prairie. The Midwest includes twelve states: Minnesota, Wisconsin, Michigan, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Missouri, Iowa, Kansas, Nebraska, South Dakota and North Dakota. The main cities of the region are Detroit and Chicago. The Southwest area, rich in minerals, includes five states: Oklahoma, Texas, New Mexico, Arizona and Nevada.
The Rocky Mountain Region is very sparsely populated. Most of the population is engaged in mining, cattle-breeding and farming. The Rocky Mountain region includes five states: Montana, Idaho, Wyoming, Utah and Colorado.

The Pacific Northwest and Alaska region is noted for its natural beauty: high steep mountains, forests and greatly indented coastlines. Portland and Seattle are important ports for trade with Asia. This region includes three states: Washington, Oregon and Alaska.

California and Hawaii states are grouped together mainly because they are relatively near each other: California is the state which is situated nearer to Hawaii than any other state. They are not alike: California is one of the largest and most populated states, the biggest cities of which are San Francisco and Los Angeles. Hawaii is one of the smallest and least populated ones. Yet there is one thing these two states have in common: lots of sun and sand.

2.1.3 Contributions to civilization

From the very beginning of the formation of the new nation and through all American history there were outstanding political leaders and social reformers. George Washington is one of them. He was the commander-in-chief of the colonial forces during the War of Independence and first President of the United States. Another prominent figure in American leadership is Abraham Lincoln who abolished slavery and reunited the country leading the North against the South during the Civil War.

Every year millions of Americans and foreigners visit the US capital, and many of them pass fascinating hours there viewing such historic treasures as the Wright brothers’ first airplane, Alexander Graham Bell’s prototype telephone, and a wealth of American and foreign art at various museums scattered around the city. Few of these people remember that art, literature and science developed in America in conditions such as existed in no European nation. Instead of a civilized society inhabiting the same region for centuries, here was a group of colonies drawn from many countries. Thus, the American art, science and literature have absorbed and assimilated many different influences in their development.

America has also given the world a number of brilliant inventors with interests in diverse scientific fields. An important milestone is
connected with the name of inventor Thomas Alva Edison who produced the first electric light bulb, phonograph, and many other inventions, thus stimulating a rapid growth in American science and technology. In fact, making inventions seems to be ingrained in the American national character. The fathers of the nation Benjamin Franklin and Thomas Jefferson were both inventors, too.

In more recent times, the first electronic computer was put to work in the United States some sixty years ago. The computer revolution began in the USA. The person who led human civilization along a new path at the end of the 20th century was Bill Gates who created the software without which it is impossible to imagine modern computing. He is chairman and chief executive officer of Microsoft Corporation, the worldwide leader in software, Internet technologies for personal and business computing.

When the Soviet Union launched the first satellite in 1957 the Americans understood that they cannot stay away from the space programs. In 1961 President John F. Kennedy set a task for the country: to land a spaceship on the moon by 1970. This program was called Project Apollo. On July 20, 1969, the Apollo 11 achieved the historic goal. The American spaceship landed on the moon. Neil Armstrong, commander of the ship, became the first person to walk on the moon’s surface. His historical words are well-remembered today, “it’s one small step for a man, but a giant leap for mankind”. Today, the Space Shuttle program is being successfully carried out by international crews.

2.1.4 Contributions to culture

American culture is rich, complex, and unique. It emerged from the short and rapid European conquest of an enormous landmass sparsely settled by diverse indigenous peoples. Although European cultural patterns predominated, especially in language, the arts, and political institutions, peoples from Africa, Asia, and North America also contributed to American culture. All of these groups influenced popular tastes in music, dress, entertainment, and cuisine. As a result, American culture possesses an unusual mixture of patterns and forms forged from among its diverse peoples. One can say that not only the country’s ethnic structure, but its culture, too, is a “patchwork quilt”.

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America is especially rich in its literature. Many of the two centuries’ notable figures of American creative writing, such as Fennimore Cooper, Herman Melville, Emily Dickinson, Mark Twain, Edgar Poe, Ernest Hemingway, John Steinbeck are well-known all over the world. Another remarkable aspect of US culture is landscape painting which has vividly captured the unique American cultural identity with its emphasis on the natural environment.

Since the beginning of the last century America has produced a number of great musicians whose achievements in the sphere of blues and jazz music spread the American sound worldwide. Among those are Louis Armstrong, Duke Ellington and dozens of others. A distinctively American classical music came to fruition when such composers as George Gershwin and Aaron Copland incorporated homegrown melodies and rhythms into forms borrowed from Europe. In 1954 a disc jockey started to broadcast black rhythm-and-blues records to the white audience. He called this music rock-and-roll. Rock-n-roll with its famous stars such as Elvis Presley conquered Europe and the rest of the planet.

Closely related to the development of American music in the early 20th century was the emergence of a new, and distinctively American, art form — modern dance. Among the early innovators was Isadora Duncan, who stressed pure, unstructured movement in lieu of the positions of classical ballet. US audiences also were introduced to classical ballet by touring companies of European dancers. The first American ballet troupes were founded in the 1930s, when dancers and choreographers teamed up with choreographers like the Russian-born George Balanchine who established the School of American Ballet, which became the New York City Ballet.

A large part of the American entertainment industry is taken by Hollywood. Though it is not definitely famous for creating real smart and intellectual movies it still helps to recreate the American Dream. Some of the most magical movies ever made are the work of Walt Disney. The first full-length animation was *Snow White and the Seven Dwarfs*. Disneyland, the huge amusement park Disney created in 1955 in California, has been a major tourist attraction since it first opened. The Disney Studio continued producing movies after the death of its founder.
2.1.5 The American “melting pot of nations”

The poet Walt Whitman said that the United States “is not merely a nation, but a nation of nations.” The first people came to America from Asia, and they crossed the Bering Strait from Siberia to Alaska when the sea level dropped. These were the people whom Columbus later called “Indians” because he was sure that he had come to the East Indies. Today there are about 1.5 million Native Americans in the United States, most of them live in the Western states — California, Oklahoma, Arizona and New Mexico. About one-third of the Native Americans live in reservations, the land that was given them by the government.

Between 1620 and 1820 very large groups of people came to the United States not as willing immigrants, but against their will. These black people were from West Africa. Today about 12 percent of America’s population is Afro-American. The dialectal differences allow their language to be called by a different name – Ebonics. In the 1820’s many people in Europe, suffering from poverty, war and discrimination began to migrate to the United States. During the first half-century, most immigrants came from the countries of north-western Europe — Germany, the United Kingdom, Ireland, Sweden and Norway. Later, many immigrants came to the United States from Italy, Greece, Poland and Russia.

There are many Spanish-speaking people who live in the USA. Some of them had lived in the areas which were under Spanish control, and found themselves living in the United States when these areas became part of the United States (for example California and New Mexico). Many other Hispanics immigrated to the United States from many different countries, mostly from Mexico, Puerto Rico and Cuba. Many immigrants came to the United States from different Asian countries (China, Japan, the Philippines, Korea, Vietnam, India and others). They have settled mostly in California, Hawaii, New York and Texas. New York is particularly famous for its multi-cultural looks. On Manhattan, one can find such diverse ethnic neighborhoods as Chinatown, Little Italy, the Jewish Lower East Side, the Brighton Beach area, Harlem, and Spanish Harlem.

Both British English and American English have a common origin. As the time went some words became out-dated in Britain, while they were still used in American English. The most famous of all American dictionary-makers, Noah Webster was as influential in the history of
American English as George Washington in the American Revolution. His monumental *American Dictionary of the English Language* is a real landmark in American history. Webster’s influence on American spelling was enormous. Webster’s dictionaries had a great influence on American speech rhythms and resulted in the remarkable uniformity of much American speech. There are some curious linguistic phenomena observed in American English. One of them is the so-called “political correctness”. The term describes language, ideas, policies, or behavior seen as seeking to minimize offense to racial, cultural, or other identity groups. In the USA, the ideas of political correctness are quite popular.

**Questions and Assignments**

1. How do you find the geographical position of the USA? What are the geographical and economical advantages of the Atlantic and Pacific Ocean for the USA?
2. Comment on the statement: “The United States has many kinds of climate”.
3. Name the chief mineral resources extracted in the USA?
4. Why is the population of the USA a unique phenomenon? How would you explain the term “melting pot” of the nations? What are the largest ethnic groups in the population of the country?
5. Explore the main characteristics of the present population of the USA referring to such basics as
   – the age structure;
   – sex ratio;
   – natural growth;
   – life expectancy;
   – the status of English as an official language;
6. Speak on the contributions of the USA to the civilization.
7. Write an essay: “The USA — the country of great differences”.


2.2.1 The earlier history of America’s discovery

The question of the discovery of America is not a new one and it arose again some decades ago when an ancient map, called the Vinland Map, was found in London. According to the map, to the west of Greenland there is a great country the Norsemen called Vinland. The outlines of the coast of Vinland on the map correspond to those of the coast of Newfoundland and North America today.

The early people of Europe and the Near East were slow to discover the West mainly because of their fear of the open sea. But the Icelandic sagas tell of a Norseman, Eric the Red, and his son, about the voyages they made. They discovered Vinland at the end of the 10th century, built houses, wintered there and returned to Greenland. The ancient Norsemen left sailing instructions behind them. It was Leif Ericsson, the son of Eric the Red, who in AD 999 reached the south shore of the land known now under the name of New England and encamped there. An old Saga tells us that his men found there a lot of grape vines and grapes. The Norsemen filled their ship with grapes and a cargo of timber and sailed away, and Leif named the country Vinland (Wineland).

In the late 1400s Spain began searching for another water route to the East. Instead of it, Spanish explorers found a new continent. A mapmaker called it the New World — the land across the Atlantic that was not part of Asia. Three ships headed by Christopher Columbus left Spain and sailed to the west. On October 12, 1492, Columbus stepped ashore, holding the Spanish flag. Columbus thought that he had reached a group of islands near the coasts of China and India which were called the Indies. That’s why he called the people he saw Indians. Columbus made three more voyages to the New World. But he never knew that he had discovered a new world. He was sure that he had approached China and India from the east. But its name America got from another traveler, who proved that Columbus discovered the New World, Amerigo Vespucci.

In the early 1500s a number of Spanish soldiers and adventurers went to Hispaniola and Cuba, islands in the West Indies. From these islands they were planning to explore other parts of the New World. These
adventurers called themselves conquistadors, which meant conquerors. One of the conquistadors was Hernando Cortes. In Mexico Cortes learnt about the rich and powerful Aztec Indians. Cortes led an army to conquer the Aztecs. The Spaniards were amazed by the Aztec city, fine architecture and sculpture. They captured Tenochtitlan, the capital, and took Montezuma, the Aztec leader, prisoner. In the end, the Spaniards defeated the Aztecs. They declared themselves masters of Mexico and sent shiploads of gold and silver to Spanish King Carlos I.

2.2.2 The British colonization of the new continent

John Cabot was an Italian sea captain who explored for England. The English also hoped that Cabot could reach the Spice Islands by sailing west. In 1447 Cabot set sail with one small ship and eighteen men. After five weeks at sea he reached land and claimed it for England. Cabot thought he was in China. In fact, Cabot had landed in what is now Newfoundland. Instead of spices, he found one of the richest fishing areas in the world. The next year Cabot explored much of the north-eastern coast of North America.

The French explorer Jacques Cartier made three voyages to the New World between 1534 and 1542. Cartier was looking for the Northwest Passage — a water route through North America to Asia. He found the St. Lawrence River and explored it as far as present-day Montreal, Canada. French explorers kept trying to find the North West Passage. In 1603, Samuel de Champlain explored much of what is now eastern Canada and northern New York State. He claimed this land for France. He set up a settlement at Quebec and sailed across Lake Huron and Lake Ontario. Robert La Salle, another French explorer, traveled to the mouth of the Mississippi in 1682. He called the surrounding area Louisiana and claimed the entire Mississippi Valley for France.

Henry Hudson was an English navigator who made important explorations for the Dutch and English. In 1609 he set sail from the Netherlands. Reaching North America, he explored the Atlantic shore and sailed up the river that was later named for him — the Hudson River. He claimed the territory around the Hudson River for the Netherlands. It became New Netherland — the first Dutch colony in the New World. In 1626, Peter Minuit established New Amsterdam, the settlement that
became New York City years later. Minuit purchased Manhattan Island from one of the Algonquian-speaking tribes with trinkets valued at the amount of 60 Dutch guilders, a sum later calculated as $24.

The first-ever English settlement in America was Roanoke Colony subsidized by Sir Walter Raleigh. Britons landed at Roanoke in August 1585, but encountered hostility from Native Americans and suffered from serious food shortages. The story of the settlement is full of mystery. It was abandoned and became known as the "lost colony".

Jamestown became the first permanent English settlement in America in 1607. The colonists were to look for gold and silver, for a passage to Asia, and for other discoveries that would quickly reward investors. None of their plans worked out, and the settlers began to die of dysentery and typhoid fever. At the end of the first year, only about one-third remained alive. There is a story about one of the founders of the colony Captain John Smith and Indian princess Pocahontas who helped colonists to survive during the hard times. The colony gave up the search for quick profits and turned to growing tobacco. King James I of England made Virginia the first royal colony.

2.2.3 The beginning of Puritan America

English migrants came to America for two main reasons. The first reason was tied to the English Reformation. Through a series of political and religious twists and turns, the new Church of England developed a Protestant theology. Within the Church of England appeared a new brunch representatives of which were called Puritans. Puritans became willing to immigrate to America. The second reason for English colonization was that land in England had become scarce. The population of England doubled from 1530 to 1680. The result was a growing number of young, poor, underemployed, and often desperate English men and women. It was from their ranks that colonizers recruited most of the English population of the mainland colonies.

New England began as a refuge for religious radicals. The first English settlers were the Pilgrims. They sailed for the New World in 1620 on the ship Mayflower. After difficult early years, they established a community of farms at Plymouth that was ultimately absorbed by the Massachusetts Bay Company. But the Pilgrim Fathers, who established
their colony at Plymouth in 1620 were not trained and prepared to cope with life on the new continent in the wilderness. The climate was very harsh. During their first winter the Pilgrims suffered very much. Hard work, diseases, bitterly cold weather, bad food killed about half of them.

On a spring morning in 1621 an Indian walked into the little village of Plymouth. He introduced himself in a friendly way and offered help. They gave food and gifts to the Pilgrims. The Indians did much to help the white settlers: they taught them how to hunt in the new country, to fish, grow crops which they had never seen before. They showed the Pilgrims how to use fish for fertilizer when growing corn, pumpkins and beans. This help was very important and because of it the Pilgrims raised good crops and had a good harvest. Governor William Bradford, who was the first elected governor in Plymouth, decided to follow an old tradition in the autumn of 1621. On that day the Pilgrims decided to thank God for his kindness to them. That was the beginning of celebrating Thanksgiving Day.

The king of England granted a charter to the Massachusetts Bay Company, a group of businessmen interested in trade in the colony. Puritans soon dominated the company. The community grew into a town later renamed Boston. The port dominated the West Indian shipping business. By 1700 it was the third busiest port of the British Empire and the leading seaport for trade with the British American colonies. Boston was an educational forerunner, as the city established the first free public school in 1635 and the first public library in 1653. Boston has continued to be a leader in education with more than 65 colleges and universities in the metropolitan area. Boston’s cultural heritage also includes American literature. Essayists Ralph Waldo Emerson and Henry David Thoreau, and novelists Harriet Beecher Stowe and Nathaniel Hawthorne all lived there. Boston has a rich cultural life, too.

2.2.4 The theocratic experiment

In the 1630’s many Puritans immigrated to Boston. Although most of these Puritans were Presbyterians, they found the system well adapted to frontier conditions. They therefore followed the Plymouth pattern, setting up Independent churches supported by public funds and excluding all rivals. Throughout the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries Puritanism remained
the dominant religious force in New England. With the exception of Rhode Island, all the colonies in that area established Independent churches.

The Puritans left England because of religious persecution, but they, too, were intolerant. In Massachusetts they established laws derived from the Bible, and they punished or expelled those who did not share their beliefs. The Puritans established a governor and a general court (an assembly elected by adult male church members) and governed themselves. Although they refused to secede from the Church of England, they did away with bishops and church hierarchy and invented congregationalism. In this type of Protestantism, each congregation selected its own minister and governed its own religious life.

This order of life was supported and promoted by active religious propaganda. One of those instrumental in this was John Harvard who immigrated to New England and settled in Boston. He was active as a minister for a short time. Upon his death he left the college at New Towne (later Cambridge), half his fortune and his library of some 300 books. The Massachusetts General Court named the institution Harvard College (now Harvard University) in his honor. It was there that the first printing press in America began to operate.

Government officials were expected to enforce godly authority, which often meant punishing religious heresy. Roger Williams was a Separatist who refused to worship with anyone who — like nearly all Puritans — remained part of the Church of England. Massachusetts banished him, and he and a few followers founded Providence in what is now Rhode Island. Anne Hutchinson was a merchant’s wife and a devout Puritan, but she claimed that she received messages directly from God and was beyond earthly authority. This belief was a heresy, a belief contrary to church teachings, known as Antinomianism. She, too, was banished and she moved to Rhode Island.

Puritan magistrates continued to enforce religious laws. They persecuted Quakers, and in the 1690s they executed people accused of witchcraft. Some of the problems related to that frustrating way of life are described in the novel The Scarlet Letter by Nathaniel Hawthorn. It’s a novel about the adulterous Puritan Hester Prynne, who loyally refuses to reveal the name of her partner. Regarded as his masterpiece and as one of the classics of American literature, The Scarlet Letter reveals both Hawthorne’s superb craftsmanship and the powerful psychological insight with which he probed guilt and anxiety in the human soul. It’s highly recommended you should read the book.
Questions and Assignments

1. Did the Europeans know about the New World long before Columbus reached the continent in 1492?
2. What was the name of the first English colony in America?
3. Complete the sentences with the appropriate facts:
   A. The United States was originally inhabited by …
   B. The American continent was named after …
   C. The first permanent English settlement was …
   D. The Pilgrim Fathers left England for …
   E. The merchant ship that brought the Pilgrims Fathers was called …
4. How did the Indians help the white settlers in the new land?
5. Why do Americans celebrate the Thanksgiving Day? Who established this holiday? What is served for the Thanksgiving dinner?
6. Why couldn’t the Indians win the war against the white?
7. Was the religious toleration in the American colonies? Explain the reasons.

TOPIC 2.3 AMERICAN ENLIGHTENMENT

2.3.1 The beginning of the Enlightenment

The beginning of the XVIII century became the period if American Enlightenment. Many of the new developments are connected with life and activities of Benjamin Franklin. He is an American printer, author, diplomat, philosopher, and scientist, whose many contributions rank him among the country’s greatest statesmen. Franklin was born in 1706 in Boston. The Franklin family was in modest circumstances, like most New Englanders of the time. At age 13 he was apprenticed to his brother James, who had recently returned from England with a new printing press. Benjamin learned the printing trade, devoting his spare time to the advancement of his education.

At 23, Franklin bought The Pennsylvania Gazette, a dull, poorly edited weekly newspaper, which he made, by his witty style and
judicious selection of news, both entertaining and informative. Franklin engaged in many public projects. He founded what was probably the first public library in America. He first published Poor Richard’s Almanac in 1732, under the pen name Richard Saunders. This modest volume quickly gained a wide and appreciative audience, and its homespun, practical wisdom exerted a pervasive influence upon the American character.

Always interested in scientific studies, he founded the American Philosophical Society, an organization for the promotion of science. He devised means to correct the excessive smoking of chimneys and invented the Franklin stove, which furnished greater heat with a reduced consumption of fuel. Franklin began his electrical experiments and performed his celebrated experiment with the kite in 1752. He invented the lightning rod and offered what is called the “one-fluid” theory in explanation of the two kinds of electricity, positive and negative. In recognition of his impressive scientific accomplishments, Franklin received honorary degrees from the University of Saint Andrews and the University of Oxford.

During the American Revolution, Franklin became one of the committee of five chosen to draft the Declaration of Independence. He was also one of the signers of that historic document, addressing the assembly with the characteristic statement: “We must all hang together, or assuredly we shall all hang separately.”

Franklin’s most notable service to his country was the result of his great skill in diplomacy. To his common sense, wisdom, wit, and industry, he joined great firmness of purpose, matchless tact, and broad tolerance. Both as a brilliant conversationalist and a sympathetic listener, Franklin had a wide and appreciative following in the intellectual salons of the day. For the most part, his literary reputation rests on his unfinished Autobiography, which is considered by many the epitome of his life and character.
2.3.2 Thomas Jefferson, the author of the Declaration of Independence

Another important figure of the period is Thomas Jefferson (1743—1826), third president of the United States and author of the Declaration of Independence. He was one of the most brilliant individuals in history. His interests were boundless, and his accomplishments were great and varied. He was a philosopher, educator, naturalist, politician, scientist, architect, inventor, pioneer in scientific farming, musician, and writer, and he was the foremost spokesman for democracy of his day. Jefferson swore his hostility, he said, to “every form of tyranny over the mind of man”. During his lifetime he sought to develop a government that would best assure the freedom and well-being of the individual.

At 17, Jefferson entered the College of William and Mary in Virginia’s capital city, Williamsburg. After that Jefferson was admitted to the practice of law in Virginia. He was reasonably successful as a lawyer, but he did not earn enough to support a Virginia gentleman. Jefferson’s main source of income, like that of most other Virginia lawyers, was his land. In this occupation, as in his studies, he was most methodical. He observed the growth of his plants and trees, keeping records of them in a special garden book. “There is”, Jefferson once wrote, “not a sprig of grass that shoots uninteresting to me.” The year of his admission to practice law, he began work on his mountaintop estate, Monticello, near what is now Charlottesville, Virginia. Jefferson designed the mansion himself in the classical style of architecture.

In 1776, Jefferson was in Congress. He was asked to draft the resolution for independence. The text of the declaration was debated, several changes were made, and some parts were dropped entirely. Jefferson regretted especially the deletion of a long paragraph denouncing the slave trade and the whole institution of slavery as a “cruel war against human nature itself”. The objective of the declaration, in Jefferson’s own words, was to justify American independence “in terms so plain and full as to command their assent”. As an expression of the philosophy of the natural rights of people in an age when absolute monarchs ruled throughout the world, it had an immense impact in America and in Europe as well.

Thomas Jefferson was inaugurated on March 4, 1801, the first president to be inaugurated in Washington, D. C. Two years later he
paid Napoleon Bonaparte of France $15 million for the land west of the Mississippi River. It came to be known as the Louisiana Purchase. He successfully served two terms as President. Jefferson and his friend Adams, both of whom had played such great parts in the winning of independence, died on Independence Day, July 4, 1826. Jefferson left detailed instructions for his burial in the graveyard of his estate. A simple monument was to mark his resting place. He specified that the monument was to be made of coarse stone so that “no one might be tempted hereafter to destroy it for the value of the materials”.

2.3.3 The American Revolution

The American Revolution ended two centuries of British rule for most of the North American colonies and created the modern United States of America. The revolution brought the Constitution of the United States of America and the rebellions of slaves who saw the contrast between slavery and proclamations of liberty, political separation of 13 colonies from the British Empire and the creation of the USA with a new political system.

It is generally agreed that the revolution originated around the time of the French and Indian War (1754—1763), and ended with the election of George Washington as the first President of the USA in 1789.

British officials believed that the British government — and Parliament in particular — had the constitutional power to tax and govern the American colonies. The Americans had developed a very different opinion of how they should be governed. In the 1760s, British Parliament passed several acts which strengthened the customs service, forbade colonies to issue paper money, and required all legal documents, licenses, commercial contracts, newspapers, pamphlets, dice, and playing cards to carry a tax stamp.

As a result, Americans rioted. They agreed to boycott all imported British goods — particularly tea. On December 16, 1773, colonials dressed as Native Americans dumped a shipload of tea into the harbor. This event got the name the Boston Tea Party. Then every colony but Georgia sent delegates to the First Continental Congress in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. The Congress refused to recognize the authority of
Parliament and instead sent a petition to the king. A Second Continental Congress created a Continental Army, with George Washington as its leader. The War of Independence really began.

The political philosopher Thomas Paine had great influence during two upheavals in the 18th century: the American Revolution and the French Revolution. He published his most famous work, the 50-page pamphlet, *Common Sense*, on January 10, 1776. The document asserted that every consideration of common sense called for the American colonies to become independent and establish a republican government of their own. The document went on to criticize the monarchy as an institution. The pamphlet sold more than 500,000 copies and helped encourage the adoption of the Declaration of Independence on July 4, 1776.

Over time, the Declaration of Independence has profoundly affected American history. Phrases from the document such as “all men are created equal” quickly took on a life of their own. The ideal of equality led Northern states to free slaves within their borders in the 1780s, 1790s and early 1800s. The document itself continues to be an important symbol for the American people.

### 2.3.4 The War of Independence and after

At first, the prospects for American victory in the War of Independence seemed small. Britain had a population more than three times that of the colonies, and the British army was large, well-trained, and experienced. The Americans, on the other hand, had undisciplined militia and only the beginnings of a regular army or even a government. But Americans had powerful advantages that in the end were decisive. They fought on their own territory, and in order to win, they did not have to defeat the British but only to convince the British that the colonists could not be defeated. In two decisive battles of the war — Saratoga and Yorktown — the Americans defeated the British army. In the Treaty of Paris of 1783 the British recognized the independence of the United States.

George Washington was unanimously elected the first president of the United States in 1789. At that time Washington was the most revered man in the United States. A lesser person might have used this power to establish a military dictatorship or to become king. Washington suppressed all such attempts on his behalf by his officers and continued to
obey the weak and divided Continental Congress. He was a leading influence in persuading the states to participate in the Constitutional Convention, over which he presided, and he used his immense prestige to help gain ratification of its product, the Constitution of the United States. During eight years in office, Washington laid down the guidelines for future presidents.

The Constitution of the United States is a system of fundamental laws of the United States of America. The Constitution was drawn up by 55 delegates to the Constitutional Convention in Philadelphia during the summer of 1787 and ratified by the states a year later. The Constitution defines distinct powers for the Congress of the United States, the president, and the federal courts. This division of authority is known as a system of checks and balances, and it ensures that none of the branches of government can dominate the others. The Constitution also establishes and limits the authority of the federal government over the states and spells out freedoms and liberties for US citizens. The first ten amendments to the Constitution of the United States are known as the Bill of Rights. It establishes basic American civil liberties that the government cannot violate.

Many members of Congress realized that a clear and exact system of governing the country had to be worked out. They decided to call a nation-wide meeting, or convention. Each state was asked to send representatives to this convention. The delegates of the Convention decided that Congress would have two parts, or houses, as the parts were called. One house was called the House of Representatives. The other house was called the Senate. Each state would have two members in the Senate. The membership in the House of Representatives would be based on the size of population. The delegates wanted to set up a government that would be effective, but at the same time not too powerful. To do this, they created a government of three branches. Each branch would have its own powers.

Questions and Assignments

1. Analyze the reasons for escalating anti-British sentiment in the American colonies during the prewar period. Why did Britain attempt to tax its American colonies?
2. Explain how the following altered Americans’ perceptions of Britain during the years 1763 to 1775. Which affected colonists the most and why?
   A. The French and Indian War.
   B. The boycott of British goods.
   C. Thomas Paine.

3. How many American Colonies were there that went to war with Britain in the American War of Independence?

4. What European countries did the American Colonies receive crucial aid from? Did any Belarusians participate in the war?

5. Where were the major battles of the Revolutionary War fought? What treaty concluded the American Revolution?


7. Prepare the projects (power point presentations) on the following topics:
   - The road to revolution.
   - The winning of independence: a timeline of events.
   - Founding Fathers (George Washington, John Adams, Thomas Jefferson, Benjamin Franklin, etc.)
   - The Declaration of Independence and the US Constitution.

8. Write an essay “The impact of the Declaration of Independence on American nation”.

**TOPIC 2.4 THE USA IN THE FIRST HALF OF THE 19TH CENTURY**

2.4.1 The historical outline

During the 1790’s work started on the construction of a new capital city for the United States. The place was chosen along the banks of the Potomac River. This land was called the District of Columbia. The new city was named in honor of the first President. After winning independence, the United States became an important shipping nation.
American trading ships sailed to China, Africa and Europe. Foreign trade created jobs for many American shipbuilders, sailors, business people and shopkeepers. One of the most lucrative businesses was whaling. It is vividly described in the novel by the American novelist Herman Melville entitled *Moby Dick*.

The United States Congress declared war on Britain in 1812, because of the latter’s aggressions against American ships and support of western Native American tribes. At one time, a British force landed in Maryland, and marched almost unopposed to Washington, D.C., burning several government buildings. The Capitol Building and the White House were among the buildings destroyed. The British attacked Baltimore, but were held off by Americans at Fort McHenry who defended the harbor. It was this engagement that inspired a witness, American poet Francis Scott Key, to write *The Star-Spangled Banner*, which later became the national anthem.

In spite of all conflicts, technological change became a dominant feature in American life between 1783 and 1861. Samuel Slater began the production of textiles using stolen British machinery designs. Samuel Colt patented the revolver. Isaac Singer patented an improved mechanical sewing machine. The first electrical telegraph was invented by Samuel Morse in 1835. It was the first form of telecommunication. An important invention was made by Robert Fulton who designed the first efficient steamboat, thus inaugurating a new era of power-driven navigation. In 1807, Fulton’s 45-m steamboat made its famous successful run of 240 km from New York City to Albany in 32 hours. Later, Fulton designed steamboats that sailed on the Potomac and Mississippi rivers, ferryboats for river crossings in New York, Boston, and Philadelphia.

During that time, the northern United States was taking its place as part of the financial and industrial center. Improvements in transportation transformed the old Northeast and the new Northwest into an integrated market society. The first and most spectacular example was the Erie Canal, completed by the state of New York in 1825. It connected the Hudson River at Albany with Lake Erie at Buffalo. The urban population of the United States began growing faster than the rural population, and American cities grew faster. There was intensive immigration which provided for new supply of cheap labor. The discovery of gold in California started the famous gold rush of 1849. The gold rush brought more than 80,000 people to California.
2.4.2 The Civil War in the USA (1861—1865)

During the first half of the century opposition to slavery grew in the North. All the Northern states had outlawed slavery. In the South, however, the rich planters needed much slave labor on their huge plantations, so the Southern states remained slave states. More and more people in America were beginning to understand that slavery was shameful, that there should be no place for slavery in a democratic society. With time, the abolitionist movement grew stronger. It gained many more supporters after a New England woman named Harriet Beecher Stowe wrote *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, a story about slavery.

Before the American Civil War start there was a man who spoke about the abolishment of slavery. His name was John Brown. Brown began in 1857 to formulate a plan, which he had long entertained, to free the slaves by armed force. He secretly recruited a small band of supporters for this project, which included the establishment of a refuge for fugitive slaves in the mountains of Virginia. His force was surrounded by the local militia, which was reinforced by a company of US Marines under the command of Colonel Robert E. Lee. He was arrested and charged with various crimes, including treason and murder. He became the subject of a famous song, known generally by the first line as *John Brown’s body lies a-mould’ring in the grave*. Later the melody was used for another song, known as the Battle Hymn of the Republic.

The election of 1860 showed clearly that the United States was a divided country. Abraham Lincoln became President. Lincoln had been known nationally when he staked out the Republican position on slavery in the territories and held his own in a series of public debates in a Senate race. He was also known for a speech in which he stated that the United States could not long endure as a “house divided” between Northern free-labor capitalism and Southern slavery. On the crucial question of slavery in the territories, Lincoln assured the South that no president could constitutionally dismantle the institution in the states. But he would preserve the territories for free labor, thus putting slavery “in the course of ultimate extinction”.

The result of Lincoln’s becoming President was the splitting of the nation into two parts. South Carolina voted to withdraw, or secede, from the United States. By February 1, 1861, Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana and Texas had also voted to secede. The seceding
states decided to form their own nation. The Southern states formed the Confederate States of America. Jefferson Davis became President. The war became inevitable, and the smallest pretext would do. Of course, it came soon. Fort Sumter in the harbor of Charleston, South Carolina, was still held by Union troops. On April 12, 1861, Confederate troops opened fire on Fort Sumter. The Union troops had to surrender the fort. It was the actual beginning of a civil war.

2.4.3 The war and its outcome

On paper, the North possessed overwhelming military superiority over the South. The North had a free population of about 22 million. The South had a population of 9 million, including almost 4 million slaves. The North was a modern industrial power; the South was overwhelmingly rural. Yet the South had advantages as well. To succeed, the South did not have to invade and conquer the North. The South had only to prevent the North from invading and conquering the Confederacy. Improved weapons (most notably rifled muskets that were accurate at more than 300 yards) gave a lethal advantage to entrenched defenders over opponents who attacked them across open ground. Union soldiers did most of the attacking.

But soon the North’s advantages began to have an effect. Goods and troops could be moved more quickly along many railroads which the North had. There were nearly 23 million people in the North against about 9 million people in the South. So the North had more people to fight. Northern factories could supply uniforms, guns, bullets and other important things for the army. The South had few factories. And as the war continued, the South had more and more trouble supplying its army. The battle of Gettysburg was the decisive battle of the Civil War. It was a brutal three-day battle. Both sides suffered heavy losses, but the clash was considered a Union victory and a turning point in the American Civil War. The battle marked the last time that the Confederate Army invaded the North. Later President Lincoln went to Gettysburg to dedicate a cemetery for the fallen soldiers. He made a short speech known as the Gettysburg Address.

The Civil War finally established the United States as a nation–state. Americans before the Civil War spoke of the United States as a plural
noun. Since the Civil War the United States has been a singular noun (*The United States is* …). The Founders’ Latin motto E Pluribus Unum (“From many, one”) finally became a reality. The Civil War had long-term economic and social results as well. The war seems to have sped Northern economic development. Northern women saw new possibilities open up during and after the war. In wartime they often took jobs previously done by men on farms and in factories, and thousands served in the Union nursing corps. Post-war women’s political and reform groups were larger and more militant than the groups that preceded them.

Finally and perhaps most importantly, the Civil War was a watershed in the history of African Americans. The war permanently ended slavery. On January 1, 1863, US President Abraham Lincoln issued the Emancipation Proclamation, ordering that all slaves in rebel territory be freed. The Proclamation marked a radical departure in policy, but reflected the overwhelming public sentiment in the North. About 3 million people were freed by the terms of the document, which is regarded as one of the most important state documents of the United States.

2.4.4 Abraham Lincoln, 16th President of the USA

Abraham Lincoln is one of the great leaders in American history. A humane, far-sighted statesman in his lifetime, he became a legend and a folk hero after his death. Lincoln rose from humble backwoods origins to become one of the great presidents of the United States. In his effort to preserve the Union during the Civil War, he assumed more power than any preceding president. Necessity made him almost a dictator, but he was always a democrat. A superb politician, he persuaded the people with reasoned word and thoughtful deed to look to him for leadership.

Abraham Lincoln’s ancestry on his father’s side has been traced to a weaver who emigrated from England to Massachusetts in 1637. At an early age, his stepmother encouraged his quest for knowledge. Besides the family Bible, which Lincoln knew well, he was able to read the classical authors Aesop, John Bunyan, and Daniel Defoe. The biography of George Washington made a lasting impression on Lincoln, and he made the ideals of Washington and the founding fathers of the United States his own. At 23, Lincoln decided to run for a seat in the Illinois House of
representatives. This was a logical step for Lincoln to take, for on the frontier a young man with ability and ambition could rise rapidly in politics.

He eventually became President of the USA and moved into the White House in 1861. Lincoln showed that he was going to be a strong president. By word and deed he became, to many people in the North, a symbol of the Union. Without this strong belief in the Union, the war could not have been won. Lincoln never lost sight of his responsibility to preserve the Union. Even the crusade against slavery remained a secondary purpose of the war. “What I do about slavery and the colored race,” he wrote, “I do because I believe it helps to save the Union.” Lincoln never recognized the Confederacy as an independent nation. He considered the Southern states only to be in rebellion against the federal government.

Lincoln was assassinated on April 14, 1865, by a half-crazed actor with pro-Southern sympathies, John Wilkes Booth. On that day, Lincoln and his wife were to attend a performance at Ford’s Theatre in Washington. Early that day, Lincoln held a Cabinet meeting at which Secretary of the Treasury McCulloch noted that he had never seen the president “so cheerful and happy”. Lincoln told his Cabinet about a dream he had had the previous night, which he interpreted to mean that a final victory was near. That night the Lincolns went to the theater as scheduled. At about 10:30 pm, Booth made his way into the box. Choosing a moment when all attention was fixed on the stage, he put a pistol to Lincoln’s head and fired once. The President slumped in his seat, unconscious. Booth leaped to the stage, shouting “Sic semper tyrannis” the Virginia state motto, meaning “Thus ever to tyrants”. He made his escape, but was killed while resisting arrest 12 days later.

Questions and Assignments

1. In your opinion, was the Civil War inevitable? Were the North and the South doomed from the beginning to battle each other eventually over the slavery issue?
2. Why was slavery so important to the South?
3. Did most Northerners and Southerners feel the same way about Abraham Lincoln? Did Lincoln’s performance as a wartime president during his first term of office justify his reelection in 1864?
4. What was the Emancipation Proclamation? Why and how did President Abraham Lincoln issue the Emancipation Proclamation? How did it affect people’s feelings towards Lincoln?

5. How did the Union win the war? List at least one major event that happened during the indicated time period:
   a. January 1861
   b. March 11, 1861
   c. May 1862
   d. January 1863
   e. July 1, 1863
   f. July 1864
   g. November 1864
   h. April 1865

6. Compare the North and the South in 1860. Why did the North win the war? Fill in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>North vs South</th>
<th>Which side had the advantage?</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Wealth</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural Production (Food)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slaves</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Immigrants</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Military Force</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7. Was the Civil War a war for freedom?

8. Prepare the projects (power point presentations) on the following topics:
   - On the eve of the Civil War: industrial North versus agricultural South.
   - A timeline of the Civil War period.
   - Abraham Lincoln: a man of his time, a man for all times.

9. Write an essay “The South and the North in the Civil War”.

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2.5.1 The Reconstruction

As the Civil War ended, the United States faced unprecedented tasks: to bring the defeated Confederate states back into the Union and to determine the status in American society of almost 4 million former slaves. These goals dominated the years from 1865 to 1877, the era known as Reconstruction. In the meantime, southern landowners, who had lost their slaves, found a new way of making money from their land. The landowners allowed farmers to live and work on their plantations. In exchange, the farmers gave the landowners a large share of the crops grown on the land. This system was called sharecropping: a system of farming in which farmers rented land from landowners and paid their rent with a share of the crops which they grew. Many of the newly freed blacks became sharecroppers.

The Civil War had brought freedom from slavery, but many a former slave’s life was still filled with days of hard work and hunger. White landowners and white voters generally opposed Republican rule. They tried to dismantle Republican power by terrorizing blacks to prevent them from voting. The best-known terrorist group was the Ku Klux Klan, formed in 1866 to suppress black suffrage and restore white supremacy.

In the last third of the 19th century, Americans turned to their economic future — to developing the nation’s vast resources, to wrestling profit from industry, and to the settlement of the trans-Mississippi West. The United States entered the industrial age. Mines, mills, factories and railroads were expanding and improving.

In the 1850’s two men, working separately, worked out a way to speed up the steel-making process. They were an American, William Kelly, and an Englishman, Henry Bessemer. The new process became known as the Kelly-Bessemer method. Alexander G. Bell invented the telephone. It changed the life of people in the whole world. The building of the railroads spurred western settlement. The Congress authorized construction of two railroads to link the Midwest and the West Coast. The meeting of the two railroads at Promontory Summit, Utah, in 1869 signified a new era in Western history.
Native American peoples defended their land and their way of life from the oncoming settlers. Fierce battles took place between the Plains peoples and federal troops. Ultimately, disease and conflict reduced the population and power of the tribes. In December 1890 US troops took a group of captive Sioux to a cavalry camp along Wounded Knee Creek. An accidental rifle shot caused nervous soldiers to fire into a group of Indians. Within a short time the federal troops had killed about 200 Sioux men, women, and children. Some 25 soldiers were killed too. The Battle of Wounded Knee marked the end of Native American resistance to settlement.

2.5.2 Industrial development of the country

At the turn of the 20th century the United States became the world’s foremost industrial nation. It emerged as the leader in meatpacking, in production of timber and steel, and in the mining of coal, iron, gold, and silver. By the turn of the century, industrialization had transformed commerce, business organization, the environment, the workplace, the home, and everyday life. Many factors fueled industrial growth: abundant resources, new technology, cheap energy, fast transport, and the availability of capital and labor. Mines, forests, and livestock in the west provided raw materials for major industries. Railroad expansion enabled businesses to move raw materials to factories and to send products to urban markets. A steady stream of immigrants arrived to work in America’s mines and factories.

Technological advances transformed production. A trail of inventions, including the telephone, typewriter, phonograph, electric light, cash register, air brake, refrigerator car, and automobile, led to new industries. Thomas Edison registered more than 1,000 patents for devices, including electric light and an electrical generation system. One hundred years ago there were 178 companies in America which made cars. But cars were expensive. They were made for the rich. Henry Ford wanted to make a cheap car. To keep prices low, he looked for ways to build cars quickly. Ford decided to build cars using an assembly line. In the end, Ford’s factory in Detroit could make a car from start to finish in just 93 minutes.

At about the same time that Ford was building his first cars in Detroit, Wilbur and Orville Wright were building an airplane in Dayton,
Ohio. They tried it out on a windy beach in North Carolina on December 17, 1903. The age of air transportation began on that day.

At the same time, strikes and lockouts were taking place, and workers often succeeded in winning shorter hours. The Haymarket Square Riot in Chicago in 1886 grew out of a strike against a company that built agricultural machinery. Union leaders called a protest meeting at which police intervened and a bomb exploded, causing many deaths. Eight workers were convicted of murder, and four were hanged. This is how the international holiday began, May 1.

Workers’ organizations emerged, one of which was the Industrial Workers of the World (it still exists). One activist of the organization was an immigrant from Sweden, songwriter and poet Joe Hill (also known as Joseph Hillstrom). In 1915, at the age of 36, he was executed after a controversial trial. His last poem was written the night before his execution. After his death, he became a legendary figure and the subject of several folk songs. The contemporary songwriter Bob Dylan claims that Hill’s story was one of his inspirations to begin writing his own songs. Author Stephen King and his wife Tabitha named their second child, Joseph Hillstrom King, after Joe Hill.

2.5.3 Manufacturing of today

More than 18.5 million Americans are employed in manufacturing. The leading categories of US manufactured goods of today are chemicals, industrial machinery, electronic equipment, processed foods, and transportation equipment. The chemical industry accounts for about 11 percent of the overall annual value added by manufacturing. Texas and Louisiana are leaders in chemical manufacturing. Industrial machinery includes engines, farm equipment, as well as various kinds of construction machinery, computers, and refrigeration equipment. California led all states in the production of industrial machinery.

Factories in the United States build millions of computers, and the United States occupies second place in the world in the production of electronic components (semiconductors, microprocessors, and computer equipment). Electronic equipment is one of the fastest growing manufacturing sectors. High-technology research and production facilities have developed in the Silicon Valley of California, south of San
Francisco; the area surrounding Boston; and the area around Austin, Texas. In addition, the United States has world leadership in the development and production of computer software. Leading software producers are located in areas around Seattle, Boston, and San Francisco.

Food processing is an important industry in several states noted for the production of food crops and livestock, or both. There are two branches of agriculture in the United States. They are crop production and animal husbandry. Some of the main crops grown in the USA are wheat, maize, cotton, tobacco and fruit. Cattle breeding and pig raising make up an important branch of America’s agriculture. To make the farmer’s work more productive scientific methods of farming are employed and modern technique of freezing, canning and packaging farm products is used. California has a large fruit- and vegetable-processing industry. Meat-packing is important to agriculture in Illinois and dairy processing is a large industry in Wisconsin.

Transportation equipment includes passenger cars, trucks, airplanes, space vehicles, ships and boats, and railroad equipment. Michigan, with its huge automobile industry, is a leading producer of transportation equipment.

The manufacture of fabricated metal and primary metal is concentrated in the nation’s industrial core region. Iron ore from the Lake Superior district, plus that imported from Canada and other countries, and Appalachian coal are the basis for a large iron and steel industry. Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and Michigan are leading states in the value of primary metal output. The fabricated metal industry, which includes the manufacture of cans and other containers, hardware, and metal forgings and stampings, is important in the same states.

Printing and publishing is a widespread industry, with newspapers published throughout the country. New York, with its book-publishing industry, is the leading state, but California, Illinois, and Pennsylvania also have sizable printing and publishing industries. The manufacture of paper products is important in several states, particularly those with large timber resources, especially softwood trees used to make most paper. The manufacture of paper and paperboard contributes significantly to the economies of Wisconsin, Alabama, Georgia, Washington, New York, Maine, and Pennsylvania. Other major US manufactures include textiles, clothing, precision instruments, lumber, furniture, tobacco products, leather goods, and stone, clay, and glass items.
Questions and Assignments

1. Prove that the period known as Reconstruction was shaped by rapid economic, social and demographic changes. In what way was Reconstruction a success? A failure?

2. Can we call the sharecropping system a legal form of slavery?

3. What were the activities of the Ku Klux Klan?

4. Prove that at the turn of the 20th century the United States became the world’s foremost industrial nation. What were the main factors that contributed to economic success of the country?

5. What are the leading categories of US manufactured goods of today?

6. Explain why the image of American business remains attractive to many people as a vehicle of progress.

7. Do you know the businesses listed below? What type of activities are they engaged in?

   - Bank of America
   - Pepsico
   - IBM
   - McDonald’s
   - General Motors
   - Wal-mart
   - Apple
   - Hewlett-Packard
   - Procter & Gamble
   - Boeing

8. Write an essay “The business of America is business. (Calvin Coolidge)”.

TOPIC 2.6 THE USA IN THE 20TH CENTURY

2.6.1 The First World War

In the summer of 1914 the First World War broke out in Europe. The war expanded to Europe’s colonies in Africa and Asia. Nations quarreled with each other over colonies and trade. In June 1914 Archduke Francis Ferdinand of Austria-Hungary was shot and killed while visiting Serbia. The Serbs asked Russia for help and got it.
Because of the alliance system, almost all of Europe was at war within a week. President Woodrow Wilson hoped that the United States would be able to stay neutral. After a German submarine sank the British liner *Lusitania* near the coast of Ireland, the Congress declared war on Germany. Over 2 million American soldiers were sent to Europe, mainly to France.

On November 11, 1918 Germany surrendered. The war was over. Yet it left many legacies. The American experience of the Great War, albeit brief and distant from the nation’s shores, showed the United States how effectively it could mobilize its industrial might and hold its own in world affairs. At the same time, fears of radicalism, horror at Soviet bolshevism, and the impact of wartime hysteria led to a second blast of attacks on radicals. Another important legacy is the literature produced by the so-called “lost generation”. The generation includes such greats as Ernest Hemingway and William Faulkner, both winners of the Nobel Prize for literature. They created some of the best known American novels and became celebrated figures in American fiction.

The 1920s are called the Roaring Twenties because of the great excitement caused by changes for the better in the life of many Americans. The period was considered a great time to be alive. People went out, had fun and did not worry about the future. They invented new ways to dress, new words to use and new ways to have fun. Many women cut their hair and wore their skirts short. Charleston became the most popular dance. Jazz music was all the rage at that time. The vivid picture of the time is given in *The Great Gatsby* by Francis S. Fitzgerald.

Radio became a vehicle for information and entertainment at that time. In 1926, inventor Farnsworth produced the first all-electronic television image. Cinema won the hearts of millions. Hollywood, California, became the center of America’s motion picture industry. The feature film became a legitimate art form. Actors like Charlie Chaplin became stars in comedy. The actress Mary Pickford became “America’s sweetheart”. Powerful companies came to the fore of the film industry, and film came to reflect the changing social and moral values of America. People enjoyed watching such film stars as Charlie Chaplin, Rudolph Valentino and Gloria Swanson. The first "talking" movie was produced by Warner Brothers in 1927. Characteristically, its name was *The Jazz Singer*. 
2.6.2 The Great Depression and World War II

The fun-filled, trouble-free days came to a sudden end. In October 1929 the big trouble began. Stock market prices had been at a record high level. Thousands of stocks were for sale at a high price. Because the prices were so high, there were no buyers for them. So the prices fell. Then people began to worry. Tuesday, October 29, 1929, was called Black Tuesday. Stock prices dropped more and more, and billions of dollars were lost on that one day. The stock market crashed. People lost their jobs. As unemployment spread, there were even fewer people who could buy goods. More factories were closed down, and more workers lost their jobs. The United States was in depression.

Franklin Delano Roosevelt was elected President at that time. He promised the American people a New Deal, a way out of the Great Depression. The New Deal laws had two goals. The first was to give some relief for the suffering which the depression had brought to the people. The second was to help farmers and businesses. The New Deal helped people by giving them work. The government organized building new roads, schools, hospitals, bridges, tunnels and dams. Under the New Deal, some young men were sent to camps in rural areas. There they worked at preserving the nation’s land, forests and water. The government also set up a system of payments to help people who were too old to work and people who were out of work.

In the meantime, Germany, Italy and Japan formed an alliance called the Axis. Japan was the first nation to use military might when the Japanese army invaded a part of China called Manchuria. On September 1, 1939, the German army invaded Poland. The Polish government asked Great Britain and France for help. Great Britain and France declared war on Germany. That was the beginning of World War II. On Sunday morning, December 7, 1941, Japanese planes suddenly appeared in the sky over Hawaii. Hundreds of bombs fell on the ships in Pearl Harbour. The next day the United States declared war on Japan. A few days later the United States entered the war against Germany and Italy.

June 6, 1944, went down into history as D-Day. The Allied Army boarded ships in Great Britain. A giant fleet of 600 warships and 4,000 smaller boats carried 176,000 Allied soldiers towards France. The soldiers were from the United States, Great Britain, Canada, France, Poland and many other nations. In the sky, 11,000 Allied planes bombed
the German positions in France. Early in the morning, the Allies landed on the French beaches. The invasion of France by Allied forces was the beginning of the end for Germany. In May 1945 Germany surrendered.

Japan continued to fight. President Truman decided to drop a newly invented A-bomb on a Japanese city. On August 6, 1945, an American bomber dropped an atomic bomb on the city of Hiroshima. In a few days the United States dropped another bomb on Nagasaki. Soon after, the Japanese surrendered. World War II was over.

2.6.3 After the war: international politics

The war had ended, but the suffering continued. After the war, much of Europe’s farmland and industry was in ruins. It was necessary to rebuild Europe. General George Marshall worked out a plan for rebuilding Europe. Congress approved the Marshall plan. The United States gave 5 billion dollars to European countries.

The Allies decided to set up an organization called the United Nations, which would work for world peace. The UN had the right and power to enforce its decisions with troops. One of the most fundamental acts of the UNO was the adoption of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948). It was prepared by the Commission on Human Rights chaired by Eleanor Roosevelt, social activist and widow of United States president Franklin D. Roosevelt.

The struggle between the United States and communist countries after World War II was called the Cold War. The war was “cold” because it was fought mainly without guns or bombs. The “weapons” in the Cold War were words, ideas, and economic and military aid. Soviet domination of eastern and central Europe increased, which led to what Winston Churchill called the Iron Curtain in his famous 1946 speech.

The first battle of the Cold War was fought in Berlin. In 1948 Stalin tried to cut off West Berlin from the Allied Zones in Germany by stopping all traffic by road, rail and canal. The Allies continued to supply Berlin by air. The Berlin Airlift lasted for ten and a half months. Finally, Stalin gave up. Yet, in 1961 the notorious Berlin Wall was built. This concrete and wire wall stretched all along the West Berlin — East Berlin border and was guarded by soldiers.
The United States helped create a new military alliance, the NATO. The creation of the organization led to the stationing of US forces in Western Europe. The most important clause in the NATO treaty was that an attack on one country was considered to be an attack on all. In other words, the East could not pick off democratic countries without the risk of a war with NATO. The Soviet Union did not react to NATO until the admission of West Germany in 1955. Then the Warsaw Pact was established.

In Asia, the Cold War in Korea became “hot”. Soviet-trained North Koreans invaded the South. In a few weeks they occupied most of South Korea. The US-controlled United Nations sent troops to help South Korea to fight back. The Korean War lasted more than three years (1950—1953). When Fidel Castro came to power in Cuba, it became a communist country. Castro’s government was receiving help from the Soviet Union. Many Americans thought that the Soviets could easily attack the United States from Cuba in case of war. When the United States learned that the Soviets were planning to install missiles in Cuba, the Cuban missile crisis began. For several days the world was a step away from another world war that could have destroyed the whole planet.

2.6.4 After the war: domestic affairs

In 1946, Doctor Benjamin Spock authored one of the most influential postwar books in America, *Baby and Child Care*. His child-centered approach emphasized helping children to learn, grow and realize their potential. According to Spock, all other considerations must be subordinated to the needs of the child. In fact, the book reflected the spirit of the times. Post-war America experienced large-scale population growth known as the “baby boom”. It lasted for almost two decades, and combined with growing prosperity of the average American.

These developments combined with pioneering discoveries in medicine. In the early 1950s, American physician Jonas Salk developed the first successful vaccine against polio, a serious disease affecting thousands of children in the country. The Salk vaccine was tested and more than 650,000 children in 44 states received injections, which proved it was safe and effective. When this news was announced on
April 12, 1955, church bells rang in celebration in many towns and cities across the United States. As a result of widespread inoculation programs, the U.S. incidence of polio dropped by 90 percent.

Technological developments were taking place on a large scale. American physicists received the Nobel Prize for inventing the transistor which became the basis for modern electronics, and a primary foundation for microchip technology. Gordon Gould’s idea for the laser came to him in 1957. He coined the acronym “laser” in his notebook, but failed to apply for a patent at that time. The device is now widely used in industrial, commercial, and medical applications. In the early 1950s, television began to make a rapid impact on American life. Soon enough, it replaced newspapers, magazines, and radios as the primary informational vehicle.

Among the first to be nationally televised were the court hearings instigated by Senator Joseph McCarthy. He claimed knowledge of hundreds of “communists” in the highest echelons of power. As a result of a new “red scare”, thousands of people were blacklisted. The campaign against Communist subversion destroyed the careers of many.

Yet there was something on the brighter side, too. The same period of time produced the school of humanistic psychology in the USA. The leading figures were Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers. Maslow’s theory was the need for “self-actualization” is the highest of all. He also stated that human needs exist in hierarchy; when lower needs, such as food and shelter, are satisfied, then higher needs, such as love and acceptance, become principle motivators. Maslow’s study of self-actualizing people revealed they were spontaneous, creative, lacked inhibitions, and were interested in the world rather than being self-centered.

An important bestselling book of the period was The Power of Positive Thinking (1952) by the Reverend Vincent Peale. He offered a message of psychological security and material success. In fact, his own life proves his words. He died in 1993, at the age of 95.

Questions and Assignments

1. Discuss the major events that drew America into World War I. Do you think the United States should have or could have avoided this conflict? Why? Why not?
2. World War I is often described as “unnecessary war”. Why? Do YOU agree?
3. How did the new technology influence World War I?
4. How did the expansion of mass communications influence the American Society after World War I?
5. What were the main events and main people of the Roaring Twenties?
6. What were some of the causes of the Great Depression?
7. In your opinion, was Roosevelt’s New Deal a success or a failure?
8. How did the Great Depression and New Deal transform American society?
9. Discuss the role that the USA played in World War II. How did the nation become involved in the conflict? How did its participation affect the direction of the war?
10. Discuss the issues surrounding the United States’ decision to use atomic bombs against Japan. What motives were behind this action, and what arguments have been made against it?

**TOPIC 2.7 THE USA AFTER 1950**

**2.7.1 The civil rights movement: 1950—1960s**

The Reconstruction failed to solve the problem of racial inequality. Blacks still had separate schools, transportation, restaurants, and parks, many of which were poorly funded and inferior to those of whites. Over the next 75 years, Jim Crow signs went up to separate the races in every possible place. The system of segregation also included the denial of voting rights. During World War I, black soldiers were segregated, denied the opportunity to be leaders, and were subjected to racism within the armed forces. The Great Depression increased black protests against discrimination, especially in Northern cities. Blacks organized school boycotts in Northern cities to protest discriminatory treatment of black children at schools.

More complicated was the educational situation in the South in the 1950s. White opposition had grown into massive resistance to the
desegregation orders. Tactics included firing school employees who showed willingness to seek integration, closing public schools rather than desegregating, and boycotting all public education that was integrated. In Little Rock, Arkansas, in 1957, the Governor refused to admit nine black students to Central High School, and President Eisenhower sent federal troops to enforce desegregation. The event was covered by the national media, and the fate of the Little Rock Nine, the students attempting to integrate the school, dramatized the seriousness of the school desegregation issue to many Americans. The same situation took place in 1963 at the University of Alabama.

Despite the threats and violence, the struggle quickly moved beyond school desegregation to challenge segregation in other areas. On December 1, 1955, Rosa Parks, a Black woman, was told to give up her seat on a city bus to a white person in Montgomery, Alabama. When Parks refused to move, she was arrested. Montgomery’s black community organized a boycott of the buses. It lasted for more than a year and dramatized to the American public the determination of blacks in the South to end segregation. It ended in triumph.

A young Baptist minister named Martin Luther King, Jr., was president of the Montgomery Improvement Association, the organization that directed the boycott. The protest made King a national figure. Later he led more than 200,000 women and men from all over the United States to Washington, D.C., on August 28, 1963, for a peaceful civil rights demonstration. The protesters gathered to show support for a broad civil rights bill. During the demonstration, King delivered his “I Have a Dream” speech in front of the giant sculpture of the Great Emancipator, Abraham Lincoln, in which he expressed the ideals of the civil rights movement. King, the Nobel Peace Prize winner, was assassinated in April 1968.

### 2.7.2 The Kennedy Administration and the Vietnam War

The early 1960s saw the election of the youngest person ever to be President of the USA. John F. Kennedy assumed the office in 1961, 35th president of the United States. As president, Kennedy directed his initial policies toward invigorating the country, attempting to release it from the grip of economic recession. He made direct appeals for public service and public commitment, paying particular attention to civil
rights. The energy and possibility of his message was cut short when Kennedy was assassinated on November 22, 1963, in Dallas, Texas.

Kennedy was assassinated before he completed his third year as president. His achievements, both foreign and domestic, were therefore limited. Nevertheless, his influence was worldwide, and his handling of the Cuban missile crisis may have prevented war. Young people especially admired him, and perhaps no other president was so popular. He brought to the presidency an awareness of the cultural and historical traditions of the United States and an appreciation of intellectual excellence.

Kennedy’s successor, Lyndon B. Johnson brought the country into the Vietnam War. By 1968 about 500,000 American soldiers were in Vietnam. The Soviet Union and China gave supplies to the North Vietnamese. In the end all sides agreed to stop fighting. The United States withdrew its troops from Vietnam. During the conflict, approximately 3.2 million Vietnamese were killed, in addition to another 1.5 million to 2 million Lao and Cambodians who were drawn into the war. Nearly 58,000 Americans lost their lives. The war caused great social upheavals in the country. By the way, the early stages of American involvement in Vietnam are graphically described in the novel by British author Graham Greene, *The Quiet American* (1954).

The Vietnam War further radicalized many American youth. The anti-war protest took place on a large scale. Demonstrations took place, in which youth chanted, “All we are saying is give peace a chance.” The peace movement’s demonstrations soon merged with the student protest. In fact, at that time college campuses filled with young people who had the freedom to question the moral and spiritual health of the nation. That’s why another facet of the youth movement was an apolitical counterculture, made up of people who were known as hippies. These young people refused materialism, mocked convention, joined communes, enjoyed rock music, and experimented with drugs and sex.

In August 1969 hippies gathered at the Woodstock Festival to celebrate love and peace. It drew more than 300,000 spectators to become one of largest mass-gatherings in the history of popular music. During the monumental three-day event some of the greatest musicians of the 1960s performed, including Janis Joplin and Joan Baez. Singer Joe Cocker and guitar player Carlos Santana became overnight stars. Jimi Hendrix, the final act of the festival, played a freeform solo guitar rendition of “The Star Spangled Banner”.
2.7.3 The space programs of the USA

As is known, the space age began with the launch of the first artificial satellite by the Soviet Union in 1957. The first human to go into space in 1961 was Yuri Gagarin. Since then, astronauts and cosmonauts have ventured into space for ever greater lengths of time, even living aboard orbiting space stations for more than a year. Two dozen people have circled the Moon or walked on its surface. At the same time, robotic explorers have journeyed where humans could not go, visiting all but one of the solar system’s major worlds. Unpiloted spacecraft have also visited a host of minor bodies such as moons, comets, and asteroids.

The United States entered the era of piloted spaceflight on May 5, 1961, with the mission of Alan Shepard. Shepard was launched on a 15-minute “hop” in a Mercury spacecraft. Twenty days later President Kennedy told Congress, “I believe that this nation should commit itself to achieving the goal, before this decade is out, of landing a man on the Moon and returning him safely to the Earth.” In February 1962 John Glenn became the first American to orbit Earth, logging five hours in space. After his historic mission, the charismatic Glenn was celebrated as a national hero. For many years, the USA and the USSR were competing in the space race. The ultimate aim was the Moon landing. But the year 1967 brought tragedy to both US and Soviet Moon programs. In January, the crew of the first piloted Apollo mission, Gus Grissom, Ed White, and Roger Chaffee, was killed in a flash fire. In April, Soyuz 1 was launched with Vladimir Komarov aboard. After reentering the atmosphere the Soyuz’s parachute failed to deploy properly, and the spaceman was killed.

In July 1969, the crew of Apollo 11 made the first lunar landing. Neil Armstrong became the first man to walk the Moon. Armstrong’s famous first words on the Moon were, “That’s one small step for man, one giant leap for mankind.” (He had intended to say “That’s one small step for a man, one giant leap for mankind,” and that is how the quote is worded in many accounts of the event.) The first-ever moonwalk lasted about two and a half hours.

On April 12, 1981 — exactly 20 years after Gagarin’s pioneering flight as the first human in space — the space shuttle Columbia flew a maiden voyage. The NASA planned to launch missions very frequently.
Yet disaster struck again. On January 28, 1986, the shuttle Challenger exploded 73 seconds after liftoff, killing its seven-member crew, which included schoolteacher Christa McAuliffe. Later, the shuttle flew a series of missions to the Russian space station Mir. Soon the shuttle began taking crews into orbit to assemble the International Space Station. On October 29, 1998, John Glenn, the first American to orbit Earth, returned to space aboard the space shuttle Discovery at the age of 77. He is the oldest person ever to fly in space. On February 1, 2003, however, disaster struck the 113th shuttle mission. The shuttle Columbia burned up while reentering Earth’s atmosphere. The seven crewmembers, including the first Israeli astronaut, all died.

### 2.7.4 From Reagan to Bush, Jr.

In 1975, a joint Soviet-American space mission took place. Two spacecraft successfully docked in space. It was a symbol of the ending of the Cold War. Unfortunately, that spirit didn’t last long. The Soviet involvement in Afghanistan was one of the reasons. When Ronald Reagan, an anti-Communist, became president, international relations grew from bad to worse. In 1980, the USA boycotted the Olympic Games in Moscow, and four years later The Soviets staged a boycott of the Games in LA. There was danger of a new war in the air.

The spirit of the day is reflected in the international media event — the visit to the Soviet Union of an 11-year-old American girl Samantha Smith with her parents. It took place in the summer of 1983 and became a true sign of the times. After that more people from both countries began to contact with one another. The new Soviet leader Gorbachev started the perestroika. Gorbachev and Reagan met several times, and as a result important agreements on banning certain categories of nuclear missiles were signed.

After in the late 1980s the Soviet Union’s power diminished, leading to its collapse in 1991, the leadership role was taken by the United States and its allies. The Gulf War under President George H. W. Bush, and later the Yugoslav Wars helped to preserve the USA’s position as the world’s last remaining superpower.

President Bill Clinton was elected in 1992 on a wave of expectations for change. Despite domestic success, Clinton’s presidency ended under
a cloud. The controversial presidential election of 2,000 was resolved by a Supreme Court decision that effectively awarded the presidency to Texas governor George W. Bush, son of George H. W. Bush.

On September 11, 2001, terrorists struck the World Trade Center in New York City and the Pentagon, killing nearly three thousand people. In the aftermath, President Bush launched the War on Terrorism under a military philosophy. In late 2001, US forces led a NATO invasion of Afghanistan, removing the Taliban government and al-Qaeda terrorist training camps. Taliban insurgents continue to fight a guerrilla war against the NATO-led force.

In 2002, the Bush administration began to press for regime change in Iraq on controversial grounds. The USA invaded Iraq in 2003, removing President Saddam Hussein from power. Although facing both external and internal pressure to withdraw, the United States maintains its military presence in Iraq. The United States has been criticized for its use of torture and other violations of human rights in its pursuit of the War on Terrorism.

Questions and Assignments

1. Why were Americans so terrified of Communist infiltration after World War II? What impact did the Red hunts of the late 1940s and early 1950s have on American politics and society?
2. In your opinion, was the Cold War inevitable? If not, was the United States or the USSR more to blame?
3. Why has the Korean War often been called America’s “forgotten war”? What purpose did the war serve, and what impact did it have?
5. Was the United States, the USSR, or Cuba more to blame for the Cuban missile crisis? What impact did the crisis have on US-Soviet relations?
6. What caused the end of the Cold War? Comment on how the Cold War influenced the development of the USA.
7. Prepare the projects (power point presentations) on the following topics:
• United States’ involvement in World War I.
• The Role of the USA in World War II.
• The Cold War and its effect on the history of the USA.

8. Write an essay “The future of the American society: is it gloomy or optimistic”.

TOPIC 2.8 POLITICAL SYSTEM.
PARTIES. LEADERSHIP

2.8.1 The US political system

The US government consists of 3 branches: executive, legislative and judicial. The executive branch is headed by the president, who must be a natural-born citizen of the United States, at least 35 years old, and a resident of the country for at least 14 years. A president is elected indirectly by the people to a four-year term and is limited to two elected terms of office. The president’s official residence and office is the White House, located at 1600 Pennsylvania Avenue N. W. in Washington, D. C. The President is a commander-in-chief of the armed forces; negotiates treaties; appoints federal judges, ambassadors, and cabinet officials; and acts as head of state. In practice he drafts legislation, formulates foreign policy, conducts personal diplomacy, and leads the president’s political party.

The members of the president’s Cabinet — the Attorney General and the Secretaries of State, Treasury, Defence, Homeland Security, Interior, Agriculture, Commerce, Health and Human Services, Housing and Urban Development, Transportation, Education, Energy, and Veterans Affairs — are appointed by the president with the approval of the Senate.

The US Congress is the legislative branch of the federal government, consists of two houses: the Senate and the House of Representatives. Powers granted to Congress under the Constitution include the power to levy taxes, borrow money, regulate interstate commerce, impeach and convict the president, declare war, discipline its own membership, and determine its rules of procedure.

The House of Representatives is chosen by the direct vote of the electorate. The number of representatives allotted to each state is based on its population. Members must be at least 25 years old, residents of the
states they are elected from, and citizens of the US for at least 7 years. Members serve two-year terms, and there is no limit on the number of terms they may serve.

Each state elects two senators to the Senate. Senators must be at least 30 years old, residents of the state they are elected from, and citizens of the USA for at least 9 years. They serve six-year terms. Senate is elected every two years and senators are not subject to term limits.

The judicial branch is headed by the Supreme Court of the United States, which interprets the Constitution and federal legislation. The Supreme Court consists of nine justices (including a chief justice) appointed to life terms by the president with the consent of the Senate. It has appellate jurisdiction over the lower federal courts and over state courts.

### 2.8.2 Main political parties

At the national level, the United States makes use of a two-party system. Today the United States has two major political parties. One is the Democratic Party, whose origins go back to the nation’s third president, Thomas Jefferson and was founded in 1828. The other is the Republican Party, which was formed in the 1854, by people in the states of the North and West, such as Abraham Lincoln, who wanted the government to prevent the expansion of slavery into new states then being admitted to the union. Each party has its own emblem — the Republican elephant and the Democratic donkey.

Party membership in any American party is formal. Members are not registered; they do not have cards and do not pay membership dues. The main representative of the Democratic party are Franklin D. Roosevelt, Woodrow Wilson, John Kennedy, Bill Clinton, Barack Obama, Hillary Clinton. The main representatives of the Republican party are Ronald Reagan, George W. Bush, John McCain.

Most Americans today consider the Democratic Party the more liberal party. As they understand it the Democrats believe that the federal government and the state governments should be active in providing social and economic programmers for those who need them, such as the poor, the unemployed or students who need money to go to college. Republicans are not opposed to such programmers but believe they are
too costly to taxpayers. They put more emphasis on encouraging private enterprise in the belief that a strong private sector makes citizens less dependent on government.

There are other, smaller parties in the United States besides the two major parties. None of these smaller parties has enough popular support to win a presidential election. But some of them are very strong in certain cities and states. They can have their own state or city candidates elected, or can determine which major party wins by supporting one or the other.

The Green Party has been active as a third party since the 1980s. Greens emphasize environmentalism, non-hierarchical participatory democracy, social justice, respect for diversity, peace and non-violence.

The Libertarian Party is an American political party founded in 1971. The political platform of the Libertarian Party reflects that group’s particular brand of libertarianism, favoring minimally regulated, laissez-faire markets, strong civil liberties, minimally regulated migration across borders, and non-interventionism in foreign policy that respects freedom of trade and travel to all foreign countries.

The Constitution Party is a conservative United States political party. It was founded in 1992. The Constitution Party advocates a platform that purports to reflect the Founding Fathers’ original intent of the US Constitution, principles found in the US Declaration of Independence, and morals taken from the Bible.

2.8.3 Main political leaders of the 2nd half of the 20th century

President John F. Kennedy (1961—1963) ushered in a more activist approach to governing. As president, he sought to accelerate economic growth by increasing government spending and cutting taxes, and he pressured for medical help for the elderly, aid for inner cities, and increased funds for education. Kennedy also stepped up American space exploration. After his death, the American space program surpassed Soviet achievements and culminated in the landing of American astronauts on the moon in July 1969.

President Jimmy Carter (1977—1981) had been the little-known governor of Georgia, but after a remarkable rise to national prominence, he defeated Republican President Gerald R. Ford. Unlike every Democratic
president since Franklin D. Roosevelt (1933—1945), he did not propose any new or sweeping solutions to social problems. Carter, unlike any of the other Democratic presidents in the 20th century, did keep the United States out of any foreign wars, and he substantially increased the percentage of minorities and women in high-level bureaucratic and judicial positions. Opinion polls regularly showed that the public liked Carter as a person but lacked faith in his leadership abilities. Following his presidency, Carter remained active in public life and gained new respect as an effective peacemaker, acting as a mediator in several international conflicts. He also used his influence as a former president to call attention to economic and social problems in developing countries and to promote human rights and democracy. In 2002 Carter was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize for his accomplishments in these areas.

President Ronald Reagan (1981—1989) based his economic program on the theory of supply-side economics, which advocated reducing tax rates so people could keep more of what they earned. Reagan also undertook a campaign to reduce or eliminate government regulations affecting the consumer, the workplace, and the environment. At the same time, he feared that the United States had neglected its military in the wake of the Vietnam War, so he successfully pushed for big increases in defense spending.

President Bill Clinton (1993-2000) declared that the era of “big government” was over in America. He pushed to strengthen market forces in some sectors, working with Congress to open local telephone service to competition. He also joined Republicans to reduce welfare benefits. Still, although Clinton reduced the size of the federal work force, the government continued to play a crucial role in the nation’s economy. Most of the major innovations of the New Deal, and a good many of the Great Society, remained in place. He appointed minorities and women to high-level positions. In March 1999 under his order NATO forces began bombing Serbia and Serbian targets in Kosovo, parts of the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia.
2.8.4 Modern US policy

In 1991 George Bush won public approval for his management of the Persian Gulf War. First the brief war caused oil prices to rise, and war costs put new pressures on federal finances. Second, Bush had promised “no new taxes”, but in fact agreed to raise taxes. Finally, the president clashed with Congress over how to improve the economy and reduce the huge national deficit.

As a moderate “New Democrat”, Bill Clinton in 1992 bucked the trend. He supported centrist, middle-class goals such as efficient government, economic growth, a balanced budget, and health care reform. But Clinton’s most important goal — a sweeping reform of the national health care system — failed. Clinton’s reputation suffered in 1998 with the revelation of an extramarital affair with a White House intern. Clinton was acquitted by the Senate in February 1999.

At the century’s end, Americans were enmeshed in the global economy; tens of millions of American jobs depended on world markets. Many US companies set up operations abroad to reduce labor costs and to ensure access to foreign markets. The global economy also meant that events in markets around the world had a greater effect on financial markets in the United States. Many American investors discovered this effect in the fall of 1998, when stock prices, influenced by markets in Japan, Europe, and around the globe, wavered wildly.

In the last quarter of the 20th century, the United States underwent social changes as well as economic ones. The new diversity reflected rising immigration rates. Immigrants from Asia and Latin America quickly surpassed in number those who came from Europe. The new immigration of the late 20th century differed from that of a century earlier. Economic problems in Mexico spurred still more immigration, legal and illegal. The largest number of illegal aliens in the 1990s came from Mexico, El Salvador, Guatemala, and Haiti. Many others came from Canada, Poland, China, and Ireland.

Critics of immigration policy contended that lawmakers who passed immigration laws since the 1960s had underestimated their effect. They believed that the new immigration created more problems than benefits. They saw high immigration rates as threatening America’s common culture, increasing competition for jobs, lowering wages, profiting only employers, injuring labor, and especially harming those at the bottom of the job market.
The experience of the last decades of the century suggests that the pursuit of American ideals — of liberty, equality, and democracy — is a process that rests on conflict as well as consensus.

Questions and Assignments

1. What document is the US government based on? What are the three branches of the national government?
2. What are the main duties of the president? Congress? The Supreme Court?
3. Discuss the role of the prominent US presidents of the 2nd half of the 20th century.
4. Are there any differences in the views of some Republicans and Democrats? Are they significant? Prove that both the Republican and the Democratic parties emerged to reflect the interests of different social groups.
5. Find arguments to support the following statements:
   - “The very idea of the power and the right of the People to establish Government, presupposes the duty of every individual to obey the established Government.” (George Washington);
   - “In politics, if you want someone to make a speech, ask a man. If you want something done, ask a woman.” (Margaret Thatcher);
   - “What is conservatism? Is it not belief in the old and tried rather the new and untried?” (Abraham Lincoln).

TOPIC 2.9 SOCIAL ISSUES, EDUCATION AND SCIENCE

2.9.1 Social issues

Numerous youth organizations which have been formed in the USA lately unite young people from all the classes and sections of the population. They have become quite an important factor in the life of American youth. Depending on their orientation, they fall into several separate categories. The first category embraces hobby and special
interest groups and clubs. They are devoted to the pursuit of a single interest: from rock fan clubs, fishing clubs to clubs for those who collect stamps, matchboxes, coins, and old paper money.

Career education and vocational student groups form another category of organizations. They are active on college and university campuses across the country. Their aim is to provide instructions to various occupations and motivational activities for young people facing barriers to success. Many of them stress the development of good work habits, effective public speaking and service to the community.

Those who are interested in programs teaching self-reliance skills and good citizenship, join character-building organizations aimed at the development of the “whole person”. Boy Scouts and Girl Scouts of America offer extensive programs for character development through helping to build confidence, motivation and self-esteem.

Various sports organizations are usually classified according to a particular kind of sport: baseball, biking, bowling, boxing, and so on. Several organizations also provide sports programs for young people with disabilities. Political groups for children are, as a rule, associated with a particular party and support its ideas, like Young Republican Federation, for example. The same concerns religious youth organizations which are connected with some denomination (Young Protestants, Young Catholics, etc.).

Greenpeace is also a youth organization belonging to the category of conservation and humane education groups which work for the preservation and wise use of the natural environment and for promoting the humane treatment of animals. Greenpeace draws attention to the most dangerous ecological problems in the world today, and protests against atmosphere pollution, sea and soil pollution.

Besides national organizations there exist more than 17,000 local clubs and youth centers which can be found at almost every school or college. Many youth clubs work during the day as well as during the evening.

2.9.2 Secondary education

American public education is operated by state and local governments, regulated by the United States Department of Education through restrictions on federal grants. Education is compulsory for every child from the age of 6 up to the age of 16 except in Maine, New Mexico,
North Dakota and Pennsylvania where it is compulsory to the age of 17 and in Nevada, Ohio, Oklahoma and Utah where children must go to school until the age of 18.

There are free, state-supported, public schools which the majority of American children attend. There are also a number of private elementary and secondary schools where a fee is charged for admission and children are accepted or rejected on the basis of an examination. These include many church-supported schools, usually Catholic, which also charge a fee. Most public schools are coeducational, that is, girls and boys study together, but a lot of the church-supported schools are for boys or girls only.

Schooling in the USA is organized on one of two bases: eight years of elementary school and four years of secondary school, or six years of elementary, three years of junior high school and three years of senior high school.

Elementary school children in the US learn much the same things as do children of the same age in other countries. The program of studies includes English (reading, writing, spelling, grammar, composition), arithmetic (sometimes elementary algebra or plane geometry in upper grades), geography, history of the USA, and elementary natural science. Physical training, music, drawing are also taught. Some schools teach a modern language, such as French, Spanish, or German.

Secondary school usually begins with grade 5. Grades 9—12 are popularly called “high school”, and the young people who attend these schools are called high school students. First two years of high school are called “junior high school”. The high school prepares young people either for work immediately after graduation or for more advanced study in a college or university. Although there are some technical, vocational and specialized high schools in the United States the typical high school is comprehensive in nature. The subjects studied in elementary school are dealt with in greater detail and in more advanced form in high school. In addition one can specialize in home economics, chemistry and physics, music, humanities, automobile mechanics, etc. High school students study 4-5 major subjects a year and classes in each of them meet for an hour a day, five days a week.
2.9.3 Tertiary education

The United States leads all industrial nations in the proportion of its young men and women who receive higher education. Americans place high value on higher education. People in the United States believe in the bond between education and democracy. Out of the more than three million students who graduate from high school each year, about one million go on for “higher education”. Successful applicants are usually chosen on the basis of their high school records, recommendations from their high school teachers, the impression they make during interviews at the university, and their scores on the Scholastic Aptitude Tests (SAT).

There is no national system of higher education in the United States. Instead, there are about 3,000 separate institutions ranging from two-year “junior” (community) colleges and technical institutes to universities. They may be small or large, rural or urban, private or public, religious or secular, highly selective or open to all. The American college is an institution which offers courses of instruction over a four-year period, grants a Bachelor’s degree and prepares the student for a job. As part of a university a college leads to a Master’s or Doctor’s degree. They are also Junior and Community Colleges from which students may enter many professions or go to four-year colleges or universities.

The universities with the highest reputation are: California University, Cornell University, Harvard University, Johns Hopkins University, Columbia University, Stanford University, Chicago University, Wisconsin University, Yale University. The best-known of all is Harvard University, Massachusetts, which was founded in 1636. The methods of instruction in the universities are lectures, discussions and work in laboratory. The academic year is usually of nine months duration, or two semesters of four and a half months each. During the first two years at most colleges and universities students usually follow general courses in the arts or sciences and then choose a major — the subject or area of studies in which they concentrate. There are no final examinations and students receive a degree if they have collected enough credits in a particular subject.

Cambridge is sometimes called the birthplace of American intellectual life. It has the nation’s oldest university, Harvard University, founded in 1636. Cambridge remains a center of intellectual life, especially since it’s also home to MIT, the
Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Harvard has an excellent reputation in many fields; MIT is a leader in science and technology. Students attending Harvard and MIT come from around the world; Harvard alone has students from 90 countries.

2.9.4 Notes on the development of American science

Today, American school of science is considered to be one of the leading in the world. There are dozens of American names among the Nobel Prize winners, especially in the second half of the 20th century. One should note that the variety of sciences is great indeed. For instance, Carl Anderson won the Nobel Prize for the discovery of positron (1936), Charles Towns for inventing the laser (1964), Robert W. Holley for his work on the genetic code (1968), and Simon Kuznets for the achievements in the field of economics (1971). In 1985 a group of American physicians was also awarded with Nobel Peace Prize for their activity against the nuclear threat.

Ironically, it was the American scientists who helped usher in the Atomic Age. In the late 1930s, a number of scientists concluded that a nuclear chain reaction was feasible and possible. Albert Einstein warned that this breakthrough would permit the construction of “extremely powerful bombs”. This warning inspired beginning of the Manhattan Project led by the American scientist Robert Oppenheimer. The project bore fruit when the first atomic bomb was exploded in New Mexico on July 16, 1945. Later, Oppenheimer resigned, chiefly in protest against using the atomic energy as a weapon of mass destruction. He remains an iconic figure as a brilliant scientist who had great social responsibility.

The Atomic Age has also been characterized by peaceful uses of atomic energy, as in nuclear power and nuclear medicine. The first US commercial nuclear power plant started operation in 1956. At the time, the future for nuclear energy in the United States looked bright. But opponents criticized the safety of power plants and questioned whether safe disposal of nuclear waste could be assured. A 1979 accident at Three Mile Island turned many Americans against nuclear power. Other, more economical sources of power began to look more appealing. Plans for several nuclear plants were cancelled, and the future of nuclear power remains in a state of uncertainty in the United States.
For the past 80 years, the United States has been integral in fundamental advances in telecommunications and technology. For example, AT&T’s Bell Laboratories spearheaded the American technological revolution with a series of inventions including the transistor. Laboratories in Silicon Valley helped give birth to the personal computer industry. In fact, it was an American invention that went on to usher in the Information Age. In 1947 three scientists invented the transistor, which eventually made it possible to package enormous amounts of electronics into tiny containers. As a result, book-sized computers of today can outperform room-sized computers of the 1960s, and there has been a revolution in the way people live — in how they work, study, conduct business, and engage in research itself.

Questions and Assignments

1. Prove that numerous youth organizations have become quite an important factor in American society.
2. What role does sport play in American life? What are the most exiting sports in the USA?
3. What are the various leisure activities in which Americans engage?
4. What are the stages of education in the USA? What is the attitude of Americans towards the education? Is education free-of-charge in the USA?
5. Develop the following points:
   A. Developing one’s potential is the leading principle of the American education.
   B. There is no national system of higher education in the United States.
   C. US universities have the highest reputation.
6. Compare the systems of education in the USA and in your own country.
7. Prepare the projects (power point presentations) on the following topics:
   • The present of American youth.
   • American youth culture.
   • American school of science: its main representatives and achievements.
8. Write an essay “The importance of education and leisure activities to the American youth”.

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2.10.1 America’s global political and economic influence

As a global superpower, the United States exerts wide-reaching political, military, and economic influence. It has strong political and military ties to democratic governments in Western Europe and in other areas of the world.

The United States operates military bases in strategic areas throughout the world, including Africa, the Middle East, Central America, Southeast Asia, and Australia. Most of its overseas forces, however, are concentrated in Western Europe under provisions of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO). Since 1949, when the alliance was created, the United States has acted as Western Europe’s military leader.

Also contributing to America’s economic power is the status of the dollar as the world’s chief international currency. The dollar is used for most international trading, and for practically all lending and borrowing transactions, but nowadays the situation changed and dollar started to lose its leading position. Euro currency becomes more and more popular in Europe.

As a leading producer and exporter of technology, the United States tributes to worldwide economic growth. It exports more computer and electric machinery and invests more money in technological research than any other country. Understanding the power and influence of the American economy is crucial to understanding America’s role in global affairs. America’s economic power underlies its political power and gives substance to foreign policy.

American foreign policy is the following. First, American foreign policy serves a moral aim in promoting and protecting democratic systems and democratic values such as individual freedom and human rights. This ideal is often referred to as “making the world safe for democracy”. Second, American foreign policy is committed to the practical principle of protecting America’s political and economic interests. Third, American foreign policy is directed toward maintaining the balance of international power.
2.10.2 Signs of America’s global role

America is a top dog in the world. For all worldwide influence, America’s aid and diplomacy are only the shadow. The real America — and the real American influence — is something else. It is the way the people live, their tastes and games, their products and preferences, the way they treat one another, the way they govern themselves, the ideas about man and man’s relations with other men that took root and flowered in the American soil.

Denims and hot dogs, skyscrapers and supermarkets, mass production and rock music, they can be found today all over the world and all of them were born in the United States. American popular tastes and attitudes have conquered the world.

The Americanization of popular taste and habits was not restricted to entertainment. The growing popularity of hamburgers, fried chicken, coca-cola and other easily prepared “fast food” and McDonald’s spread American eating habits all over the world. Blue jeans and T-shirts Americanized the dress of people on every continent.

Supermarkets Americanized the everyday experience of shopping for millions. The first supermarkets appeared in the United States in the 1950s. When supermarkets proved a commercial success in the United States they quickly spread to other prosperous countries, first in Europe and then in other parts of the world.

Another feature of American cities in these years — groups of tall, shining buildings with walls of glass and metal. To many people they became images of late-twentieth-century modernity. Skyscrapers became one of the principal visual symbols of the modern United States.

Such buildings gave visual expression to the impact of the United States on the twentieth-century world. They were gleaming symbols of a name that some historians were giving to the century even before it reached its end. The name was “the American Century”.

2.10.3 America’s mass culture

For most of the 20th century, American artists and thinkers quarreled about the values of a mass, democratic, popular culture and an elite culture accessible only to the few — the quarrel between “low” and “high”. Beginning at the turn of the century, the growth of the technology of mass communications — motion pictures, the phonograph, radio
television — created a potential audience. Mass culture seemed to promise a democratic culture, a cultural life directed not to an aristocracy but to all men and women.

American movies play an important role in American influence is continued by a powerful force — television. American movies are a good way to spread American culture because often people are influenced by what they see in the movies. Most of the entertainment programs and documentaries we watch on TV are from America, and most of the movies we go to are made in Hollywood.

Most early American television programs were concerned with entertainment. Comedy and game shows, stories about policemen and detectives, the adventures of fictional western heroes like the Lone Ranger — all these were very popular. The main purpose of such programs was to attract large audiences of “viewers”. Manufacturing firms then paid television companies like NBC and CBS lots of money to show advertisements for their products while the programs were being broadcast, or “television”. Television programs became an important American export.

Television became the most famous source of entertainment. Though for many people the multiplex and television remain their most sustained contacts with American life. That’s why Disney World became the most popular place. Amusement parks have a long history, being important landmarks and meeting places within the expanding cities of industrial America. Disneyland became successful through television promotion. It became the national and then international yardstick for large entertainment complexes. California was often seen as America’s Dream and Disneyland was seen as California’s own Dream. But Disney is more about market share and less about promoting American culture.

In music, the process of Americanization could be seen most clearly in the huge international popularity of rock. Rock began as “rock-and-roll”, a music that was first played in the 1950s. Many of rock and roll’s first stars were black performers such as Chuck Berry and Little Richard. But the unchallenged “King” of rock-and-roll was a young southern white named Elvis Presley. Rock became an international as well as an American phenomenon, one that millions of younger people worldwide saw as their natural cultural language.
2.10.4 The USA in the 21st century

George W. Bush is the 43d President of the United States. He was sworn into office on January 20, 2001. President Bush was re-elected on November 2, 2004, and sworn in for a second term on January 20, 2005. On domestic issues, President Bush is also committed to job creation and economic growth, health care and welfare reform, improving the educational system, and the development of a comprehensive energy plan to promote energy efficiency and conservation.

In the 2004 presidential election there were two key issues. The well-being of the economy — economic growth, jobs, and the overall condition of US fiscal policy — is traditionally an important topic in election years. The second major issue in the election campaign of 2004 was foreign policy. There were times, for example, when Americans cared very deeply about foreign policy. The attacks on the World Trade Center in New York City and the Pentagon in Washington, D. C. on September 11, 2001 changed the importance individual Americans attributed to national security. As a result of the “9/11” attacks, one of the major priorities of the Bush Administration is a broad international anti-terror strategy based on diplomacy, law enforcement, intelligence, financial investigation, military action, and humanitarian aid. One of the major recent domestic challenges in the United States was coping with the damages done by Hurricanes Katrina and Rita in September 2005. This was one of the most serious natural catastrophes in US history.

Other major international priorities include the Middle East Roadmap to Peace, the Millennium Challenge Account for developing countries and an emergency global HIV/AIDS program. Another important international initiative is the partnership between the United States, the so-called EU-3 — European Union members France, Germany and Great Britain — as well as Russia and other countries to prevent Iran from developing nuclear weapons.

Barack Obama, 44th president of the United States (2009— ) and the first African American to hold the office. He was the third African American to be elected to the US senate since the end of Reconstruction (1877). In 2009 he was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize “for his extraordinary efforts to strengthen international diplomacy and cooperation between peoples”.

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After enjoying soaring popularity early in his term, Obama became the target of increasing criticism, largely due to the slow pace of economic recovery and continued high unemployment rates but also because of widespread opposition to Democratic efforts to reform health care insurance policy, the signature issue of the Obama presidential campaign. At the beginning of September 2012 the Democratic Party officially nominated Obama and Biden as its candidates for president and vice president of the United States. On November 6, 2012, Obama won a narrow victory in the national popular vote but triumphed in almost all the battleground states to win a second term, garnering 332 electoral votes to Romney’s 206. “Democracy in a nation of 300 million can be noisy and messy and complicated,” he said in his election-night victory speech. At the top of the president’s agenda in 2013 was the introduction of gun-control legislation, an issue that again had taken centre stage in the aftermath of a mass shooting at Sandy Hook School in Newtown, Connecticut, on December 14, 2012, which resulted in the deaths of 20 children and 6 adults.

The Obama administration’s foreign policy in the region was also being tested by events in Egypt, Syria and other countries. Events in the Middle East continued to make that region an important focus of Obama’s foreign policy in 2014. However, the president’s attention dramatically shifted early in the year to a developing crisis in Ukraine.

2.10.5 Sightseeing in the USA

Tourist attractions in the USA draw millions each year with their beauty and grandeur. They mesmerize people of all ages and cultures.

One of the USA top tourist attractions, the majestic Grand Canyon (1,218,376 acres) was first mapped out in 1869 by Major John Wesley Powell, a one-armed geologist who ventured down the capricious Colorado River he and eight other men were exploring in wooden rowboats. Today only Mexico’s Barranca de Cabre and Idaho’s Hell’s Canyon are deeper than this National Monument. Though its depth drops to 6,000 feet, the floor heats to over 100 degrees. The summers in the area are sizzling and the winters are freezing cold. Even for those who come at the right time of the year, hiking to the bottom of the Canyon will only take 2 days.
Mount Rushmore is an iconic national memorial (1,829 m) in the Black Hills of southwestern South Dakota. Huge sculptures of the heads of presidents George Washington, Thomas Jefferson, Abraham Lincoln, and Theodore Roosevelt are carved in granite on the northeast side of the mount mass. The four heads, each about 60 ft high, represent, respectively, the nation’s founding political philosophy, preservation, expansion and conservation. The memorial, first suggested by Jonah Robinson of the South Dakota State Historical Society, was dedicated in 1925. Work began in 1927 under Gutzon Borglum and was finished in 1941, after six and a half years of actual work. The federal government paid most of the costs. This world-famous attraction is visited by almost 2,000,000 tourists annually.

The Walt Disney World Resort attracts more travelers than any other resort on Earth. Six different theme parks and a wilderness preserve cover well over 20,000 acres — about the size of a city like San Francisco. Visitors can make memories at the Magic Kingdom, EPCOT, Hollywood Studios, the Animal Kingdom, and two massive water parks. The big WDW just might be the most family-friendly resort in history. To top it all off, trips to the Walt Disney World Resort are often touted as the highlight of childhood. Perhaps that’s why families around the world can’t stop coming back.

National Mall and Memorial Parks (est. 1965) in Washington, D. C. attract over 25 million annual visitors, making this the second most visited tourist attraction in the world. People flock to see iconic landmarks for themselves — everything from the Lincoln Memorial to the Washington Monument, an obelisk rising over 550 feet. The historic structures, famous museums, and charming gardens are what make visitors eager to return. The autumn season especially brings colorful flair and fair weather to National Mall and Memorial Parks.

Questions and Assignments

1. Americanization or Globalization? Discuss the following statements:
   - Americanization is the contemporary term used for the influence the United States of America has on the culture of other countries.
• The most visible sign of globalization seems to be the spread of American hamburgers and cola to nearly every country on earth.
• The casual “American” style of wearing jeans, T-shirts, and sport shoes is now common and acceptable in many places.
• Simply regarding globalization as mere Americanization is misleading.

2. Speak on the main events in the USA in the 21st century.

3. Comment on the major achievements of the following Americans: Louis Armstrong, Neil Armstrong, Walter Disney, Thomas Edison, Henry Ford, Benjamin Franklin, Michael Jordan, Martin Luther King, Marilyn Monroe, Elvis Aron Presley.

4. Make up your own list of 10 great Americans. Explain your choice. Work individually first, then do the same in small groups.

5. Prepare the projects (power point presentations) on the following topics:
   • The outstanding American politicians.
   • The outstanding American scientists and inventors.
   • The outstanding American writers and artists.
   • Places of interest in the USA.

6. Write an essay “The most popular attractions in the USA”.
The Victorian period, the years between 1837 and 1901 and named after the great Queen Victoria, was a time of great change. The population of England represented various classes, occupations, and ways of life. The transportation of the period served as the forerunner of much of the transportation used today and the advances in medicine were also instrumental in changing the face of medicine forever.

One of the most important things to know in Victorian society was good etiquette. Both men and women had their own set of rules of etiquette. There was a rule of etiquette for almost everything you did in a day. For women, there were rules about what kind of jewelry one should wear as well as when and where. Who to walk with, who to dance with, how and when to speak to a stranger, were all very critical knowledge. For men, there were rules about bowing, hat tipping, chaperonage, where to sit and next to whom, even about the circumstances in which it was correct or not to smoke or drink in front of ladies. There was also a correct title for almost every type of profession, social standing and rank.

One of the major events in upper class society was the dance. Dances were usually scheduled to correspond with the full moon. Even most great houses did not have very large ballrooms. As a consequence, most balls were held outdoors. Most dances started around eight o’clock or so and the light of the full moon allowed less lighting to have to be put up. <…>

Running a house in the 19th century was nearly impossible without at least one servant. Sometimes people showed off by having more servants than they needed, for, just like land and carriages, servants were a sure sign of wealth. A small household would probably only be able to afford a maid-of-all-work, a girl who cooked, cleaned, scrubbed, mended, looked after the children, and got to stay in the kitchen while the family went out or enjoyed themselves in the parlor. A grander household, say, that of a doctor or banker, would perhaps have a cook, housemaid, and nurse, while the servants in a great house could amount to a small army. <…>

The only parts of the body that were at all frequently washed were the arms, neck, face, and hands. However, by the mid-19th century, house plans show that houses had begun to install special houses for baths. In the middle class usually the whole family took part in one big bath on Saturday, mostly because of the nuisance it was to boil the water. The poor however, bathed infrequently at best. <…>

One prominent feature of Victorian society was the abundant poor. When one looks at some of the occupations of the poor, one would think they were looking at a society that lives by scavenging. For instance, one of the most easily pictured jobs, is that of the chimney sweep. Chimney sweeps would crawl up the twelve by fourteen inch chimneys, some as small as seven inches square, in order to clean out the annual average of 40 gallons of soot that was deposited there. These sweeps were small boys that were often “encouraged” by older boys standing below holding lit straw to their feet or sticking them with pins.
Another job popular for young boys was to be a ratcatcher. They sometimes used arsenic to poison the rats, but as this could be expensive, more often they used a ferret to flush the rats out and a terrier to kill them. This was a popular job because of the pay. The going rate for de-ratting a London house ranged from two shillings to one pound.

Another job that was popular with street children was that of messenger. It was quite common for a gentleman to ask a nearby street urchin to run an errand for him. These children were faster than most normal messengers, because of the fact that they could go to all areas of a city without being intimidated. One good example of this is Sherlock Holmes’ use of the Baker Street Irregulars, a small band of street urchins, to run errands for him.

Yet another occupation, though not for children, was that of a dustman. Dustmen periodically come round to haul away household dust-ashes and refuse. Once away from the house, the dustman would sift through it for accidentally discarded valuables and other salable items. <…>

Another favorite occupation of both boys and men was pickpocketing. As some may remember from Dickens Oliver Twist, most boys were apprenticed into the trade. This was a trade in which one excelled or found oneself in jail. Some pickpockets were not very good, but the majority of them were very good. Most pickpockets worked in groups, sharing the proceeds (usually quite plentiful) so that if one did not do well one day, he would not have to go hungry.

The most common line of work for all in the lower classes was factory work. One of the good things that it provided were secure employment and housing. Some of the bad things were long hours, overcrowding, and low wages. The urban wages were higher and less liable to seasonal fluctuations than agricultural wages, but workers were entirely dependent on wages for food and shelter. Having limited leisure time and little opportunity for other pursuits, workers tended to spend heavily on drink, setting nothing aside for periods of illness or unemployment. This quickly reduced many to destitution worse than they would have experienced in the countryside.

Housing for the poor was almost always overcrowded. There were reasons for this however, and good reasons at that. Any improvement in housing conditions meant increased rents, which workers could not afford. Sanitary services would reduce families income from the sale of “night soil” to farmers. More space per family would increase the distance between home and work, lengthening the already too long working day. Thus, the only way that working class housing could make a profit was by overcrowding.

Children working in the factories almost always had it the worst. At first, there were no rules applying to children and work. Then, in 1819, Sir Robert Peel passed an act that applied only to the cotton mills, prohibiting the employment of children under nine, and imposing a maximum working day of twelve hours for children between the ages of nine and sixteen. The problem was, however, that the local authorities believed that a fourteen hour day was fine, declaring “Nothing is more favorable to morals than habits of early subordination, industry, and regulation”. In 1844, as a result of the fact that workers frequently came home too exhausted to look after their children, an act which limited a child’s workday to six and a half hours and the working week of women to sixty-five hours was passed. This made the population stronger, healthier, and wiser, only to, in consequence, make it poorer.
In Victorian times, you could travel one of three ways: by train, by horse, or by foot. The most common means of transportation was by far the horse, for it was used by rich and poor alike. The rich owned fancy coaches that had every accessory one could ever need for living on the road, and the poor would go about town on the cheap omnibuses that carried twenty people at a time. <…>

By horse was not the only way to travel in Victorian England, there were also railways and bicycles. The more popular of the two was the railway. In 1833 only 3.5 million people traveled from one city to another every year. By 1863, however, the number of railway travelers had reached an annual total of 204 million; an increase, allowing for population growth, of forty times.

The 19th century was not a time in which one would want to become sick. In the medical world, there were four types of doctors. The highest on the medical totem pole was the physician. In the early half of the century physicians made up a tiny handful of doctors in practice. Most were concentrated in London, where there was a greater chance of finding a patient of wealth and standing. The only jobs of a physician were merely to dispense drugs and do very simple physical exams. To become a physician, you had to have gone to the Royal College of Physicians and gone to Oxford or Cambridge. <…>
The Greatest Britons of All Time Chosen by the People of Britain
(from BBC reveals 100 great British heroes)

In November 2002, the British public voted to find the Greatest Briton of all time. Over a million people voted. The list contains a few non British entrants including two Irish nationals (Bono and Bob Geldof) and Freddie Mercury, who was born in Zanzibar to Indian Parsi parents.

Here are the results:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Sir Winston Churchill</td>
<td>Winston Churchill was a politician, a soldier, an artist, and the 20th century’s most famous and celebrated Prime Minister.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Isambard Kingdom Brunel</td>
<td>Isambard Kingdom Brunel was an extraordinary Victorian engineer. He designed and built amongst other structures bridges, ships, railways and viaducts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Diana, Princess of Wales</td>
<td>From the time of her marriage to the Prince of Wales in 1981 until her death in a car accident in Paris in 1997, Diana, Princess of Wales was one of the world’s most high-profile, most photographed, and most iconic celebrities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Charles Darwin</td>
<td>Charles Darwin was a British naturalist of the nineteenth century. He and others developed the theory of evolution. This theory forms the basis for the modern life sciences. Darwin’s most famous books are “The Origin of Species” and “The Descent of Man”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>William Shakespeare</td>
<td>William Shakespeare was a playwright and poet whose body of works is considered the greatest in English literature. He wrote dozens of plays which continue to dominate world theater 400 years later.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Sir Isaac Newton</td>
<td>Isaac Newton was a mathematician and scientist who invented differential calculus and formulated the theory of universal gravitation, a theory about the nature of light, and three laws of motion.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Queen Elizabeth I</td>
<td>The daughter of King Henry VIII and Anne Boleyn, Queen Elizabeth I reigned England from 1558—1603. Her reign was marked by several plots to overthrow her, the execution of Mary Queen of Scots (1587), the defeat of the Spanish Armada (1588), and domestic prosperity and literary achievement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>John Lennon</td>
<td>John Lennon was a musician and composer who was a member of the Beatles, the biggest rock band of the 1960s.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
9. **Horatio Nelson, 1st Viscount Nelson**  
Nelson is the greatest hero in British naval history, an honour he earned by defeating Napoleon’s fleet in the 1805 Battle of Trafalgar.

10. **Oliver Cromwell**  
Oliver Cromwell was a military, political, and religious figure who led the Parliamentary victory in the English Civil War (1642—1649) and called for the execution of Charles I. He was Lord Protector of England for much of the 1650s, ruling in place of the country’s traditional monarchy.

11. **Ernest Shackleton**  
Ernest Shackleton was a British explorer of the South Pole who is best remembered for leading his crew to safety after the failed expedition of the Endurance (1914—1916).

12. **Captain James Cook**  
James Cook was an explorer of the eighteenth century, known for his voyages to the Pacific Ocean. Cook visited New Zealand, established the first European colony in Australia, and was the first European to visit Hawaii. He also approached Antarctica and explored much of the western coast of North America.

13. **Robert Baden-Powell**  
British soldier who founded the Boy Scouts (1908) and with his sister Agnes (1858—1945) the Girl Guides (1910).

14. **King Alfred the Great**  
King of the West Saxons (871—899), scholar, and lawmaker who repelled the Danes and helped consolidate England into a unified kingdom.

15. **Arthur Wellesley, 1st Duke of Wellington**  
British general and politician. Commander of British troops during the Peninsular War (1808—1814), he defeated Napoleon at Waterloo (1815), thus ending the Napoleonic Wars. As prime minister (1828—1830) he passed the Catholic Emancipation Act (1829).

16. **Margaret Thatcher, Baroness Thatcher**  
Margaret Thatcher was the United Kingdom’s first woman prime minister, and she held the office of PM for longer than anyone in the 20th century.

17. **Michael Crawford**  
Actor.

18. **Queen Victoria**  
Victoria’s nearly 64-year reign was the longest in British history.

19. **Sir Paul McCartney**  
McCartney was a singer, songwriter and guitarist for The Beatles, the biggest rock band of the 1960s.

20. **Sir Alexander Fleming**  
British bacteriologist who discovered penicillin in 1928, for which he shared a Nobel Prize in 1945.
SUPPLEMENT C

The Declaration of Independence

Read the following extract from The Declaration of Independence and answer the questions after it.

IN CONGRESS, July 4, 1776.
The unanimous Declaration of the thirteen united States of America

When in the Course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the Laws of Nature and of Nature’s God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty and the pursuit of Happiness. — That to secure these rights, Governments are instituted among Men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed, — That whenever any Form of Government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the Right of the People to alter or to abolish it, and to institute new Government, laying its foundation on such principles and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their Safety and Happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate that Governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and accordingly all experience hath shown, that mankind are more disposed to suffer, while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same Object evinces a design to reduce them under absolute Despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such Government, and to provide new Guards for their future security. — Such has been the patient sufferance of these Colonies; and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former Systems of Government. The history of the present King of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute Tyranny over these States. To prove this, let Facts be submitted to a candid world.

1. Who wrote the Declaration of Independence?
2. What is the purpose of the Declaration of Independence as stated in the introductory paragraph?
3. Why was justifying revolution so necessary?
4. What was the cause for Issuing the Declaration of Independence?
5. According to Jefferson, who has the right to create a government?
6. According to Jefferson, what is the purpose of a government?
7. According to Jefferson, what should the people do if the government falls to fulfill its purpose?
8. If Jefferson assumed the right of revolution — as no other practical politicians before him had done — what did he have to prove to justify a declaration of independence from England?
REFERENCES

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Практическое пособие
для студентов языковых специальностей
учреждений высшего образования

Заведующий РИО Е. Г. Хохол

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